

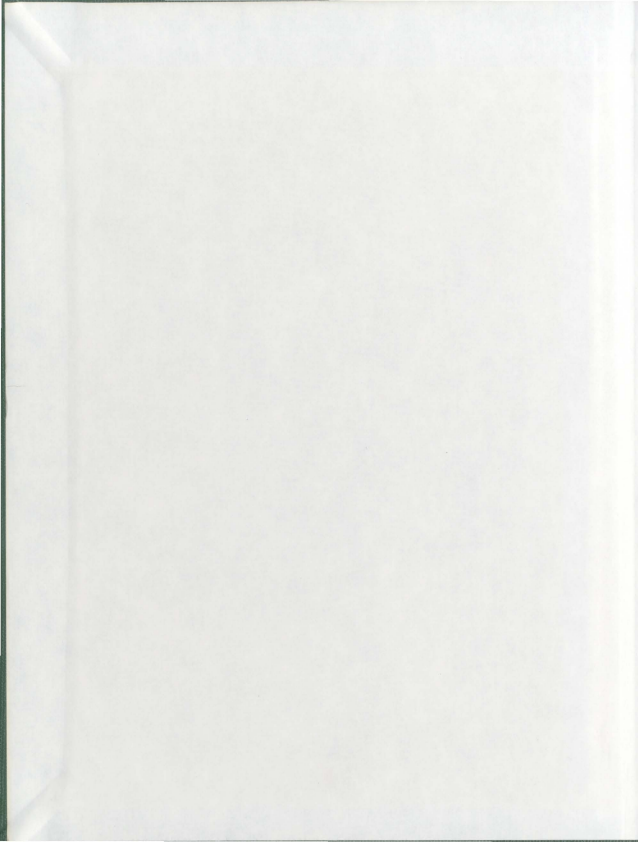
A HANDBOOK OF LANGUAGE ARTS OBJECTIVES
AND LESSONS FOR EDUCABLE MENTALLY RETARDED
STUDENTS AT THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL LEVEL

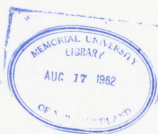
CENTRE FOR NEWFOUNDLAND STUDIES

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ADOLPH CRANT





A HANDBOOK OF LANGUAGE ARTS OBJECTIVES AND LESSONS
FOR EDUCABLE MENTALLY RETARDED STUDENTS AT THE
JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL LEVEL

by



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ABSTRACT

The primary purpose of this study was to develop a handbook of language arts objectives and lessons for educable mentally retarded students at the junior high school level.

The development of this handbook followed a three stage procedural model: first, the gathering of data; second, the selection of relevant data pertinent to the objectives; third, the drawing up of guidelines for the development of techniques and strategies used in this handbook.

The gathering of data was from three sources. In addition to a search of the literature relative to the topic of this study and a computer search of the ERIC (Microfiche) documents, a standard letter was sent to all provincial and state departments of education in Canada and the United States respectively. This letter requested materials and information on the topic of this study. Replies to this letter gave the writer a fair indication of the current state of affairs in North America relative to programs of language arts for educable mentally retarded students at the junior high school level.

The criterion for selection of data relevant to the objectives and lessons was fivefold: first, suitability for the age group of the target population; second, consideration of the instructional levels of EMR students; third,

similarity to the Newfoundland Department of Education language arts curriculum; fourth, the objectives could be evaluated by observable means; fifth, developmental progress could be made by students in this program.

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CHAPTER I

THE PROBLEM

Background of the Study

Language arts is the manifestation by educational systems of the importance of language to the developing individual. Kennedy (1975) emphasizes this importance:

The significance of language for the child and the adult cannot be overstated. The adult who does not understand language or is unable to use it in pursuit of his basic human needs remains unfulfilled. He cannot communicate with his fellow man, either to satisfy his needs or to understand theirs (p. 3).

Moffett and Wagner (1976), who define language arts in terms of communication concepts, describe the acquisition of communication skills under three levels of coding: conceptualization, verbalization and literacy. They use the following model:

	CODING	
CONCEPTUALIZATION	experience into thought	NON-VERBAL
VERBALIZATION	thought into speech	ORAL
LITERACY	speech into print	WRITTEN

The following model of verbal coding as used by Moffett and Wagner (1976) is similar to the model of language arts to be utilized in this study:

	encoding	decoding	
VERBALIZATION (basic)	speaking	listening	ORAL
LITERACY (derived)	writing	reading	WRITTEN

(p. 11)

Moffett and Wagner also make the point that thinking is basic to all levels of coding.

It is little wonder that school systems place such great emphasis on the language arts. Kennedy (1975) describes the frustrating situation of a child with minimal language skills at the time when he enters school:

The child who enters school with minimal language skills is surprised to find himself in a verbal world that he does not understand and cannot share in. Once he recovers from the shock, he tries to make the adjustment that will give him the power that language holds. Language is power for the young child as well as for the adult. Without the power, the child is the victim of other children, the teacher, the school, and the larger society outside his home environment. Other children may gain their wants, meet their needs, and interact with adult figures. But the child who lacks language facility remains on the fringe of social interaction; as a result he is continually frustrated in his isolation. Without language - without power -

the child operates in a twilight zone between the world he sees around him and the world to which he is restricted by his language skills. The language arts teacher provides the child with the language means for interacting with the totality of his environment (p. 3).

In the introduction to the Language Arts Curriculum for the Educable Mentally Handicapped in the Province of Alberta (1965) the prime importance of language arts is again emphasized:

The importance of language arts (listening, speaking, reading and writing) cannot be overemphasized in any educational program, including a program for the educable mentally handicapped. Effective communication with others is basic to the successful realization of our primary objectives, the development of as great a degree of personal, social and occupational competence as is possible with each child (p. 8).

Since language arts is such an important area of the grade school curriculum, it logically follows that its content and method of presentation must not follow a haphazard pattern. Any deficiency on the part of a child in the language arts may result in a comparable deficiency in most, if not all, of his school subject areas. Conversely, a child's mastery of the language arts at any point along the age-grade continuum will, in large measure, determine his success in other areas of his curriculum. Mastery of the language arts is, in fact, basic to his scholastic success. In a curriculum guide for the educable mentally handicapped for the Province of Saskatchewan (preliminary draft, 1977), this central importance is emphasized:

All the language arts - listening, speaking, reading and writing - are essential for communication and for acquiring and integrating knowledge. The development of these skills cannot be left to incidental learning but must be developed through a carefully planned instructional program (p. 224).

The real purpose then of language arts as a segment of academic curriculum is for more effective communication, hence more effective living; and any program of language arts must take this fact into consideration. Dobbin (1974) views the language arts to be of paramount importance. She says that, "To be a person is to communicate and to accept communication."

The importance of language arts in a regular academic curriculum is beyond question; in a modified curriculum for the educable mentally handicapped, language arts is of greater importance still. This is because these students experience greater difficulty with academic studies, and the language arts are basic to such studies.

Educable mental retardation is but one type of exceptionality for which curriculum modification is necessary. Robbins (1975) offers a possible definition of the type of child that falls under the label of "exceptionality". He states:

Strictly speaking every child is an exceptional child because children are so different with their own unique profile of characteristics. When it is applied to education however, it is widely recognized that a small number of children are so different from the average in one or more dimensions that it is unrealistic

to expect regular education to serve them adequately. These children with special abilities or unusual limitations are known as exceptional children. For them the regular school program does not provide appropriately for their needs. If these children and youth are to be given as great an opportunity to achieve their potential as more typical children, they require a program of special education ranging from a short period of time to many years (p. 2).

This study, however, is not concerned with the whole area of exceptionality in children; it is concerned with the single group of students defined as educable mentally retarded. The terms 'educable mentally retarded' and 'educable mentally handicapped' are used interchangeably in this study. Both terms denote the same area of exceptionality. Robbins (1975) offers the following definition of this group of children:

Students who are educable or moderately mentally handicapped may be unable to function satisfactorily in a regular classroom without special help but do have the potential for acceptable adjustment in academic, social and occupational areas when given special educational attention (p. 9).

In A Program Guide for Senior Special Education (n.d.), published by the Newfoundland Department of Education, these students are defined as follows:

...mentally are functioning in the E.M.R. range or have an identified learning disability which causes them to function academically as E.M.R. students (p. 1).

Educable mental retardation as defined by Kirk (1972) is the ability to learn in children as reflected by Intelligence Quotient scores of between 50-55 and 75-79.

Goldstein and Seigle (n.d.) report that the education of educable mentally handicapped students differs in rate, degree of abstraction and ultimate potential from that of regular grade students. Since the acquisition of language arts is basic to all academic subjects then it logically follows that greater care must be utilized in all aspects of its content and method of presentation. Educable mentally retarded students need to be given the best tools possible to do their best in academic subjects, and these tools are the language arts. The Illinois Plan for Special Education (n.d.) comments on the curricular implications of a developmental program of language arts for educable mentally retarded students:

Language arts - listening, speaking, reading and writing - are the skills necessary for communication and the tools by which knowledge is acquired and integrated. They are the skills, however, which are quite difficult to develop in the child who is educable mentally handicapped because of their positive relationship to intelligence. The teacher cannot leave the development of these skills to incidental learning but must develop them through a carefully planned instructional program. Through adaptation of instruction to the learning abilities and disabilities of the educable mentally handicapped, application of special methods and use of good teaching devices, it is possible to develop these skills to a level of achievement adequate for most children to function effectively in society (p. 172).

When considering curriculum development for educable mentally retarded students it should be borne in mind that they are not completely different from their regular grade peers. Goldstein and Seigle (n.d.) comment on this fact:

Basically the intellectual characteristics of educable mentally handicapped children are similar to those of their normal peers in that they follow the same developmental sequence. The differences that exist are not so much in the kind of characteristics as they are in the rate and degree with which they develop. Educable mentally handicapped children learn in the same way as do normal children, through experience. In contrast, their rate of learning is slower and they rarely learn as much, particularly in the academic areas (p. 5).

Rawlyk (1977) brings out the curricular implications of the fact that in personality development, the educable mentally retarded student is basically the same as his regular grade peer. She says:

The philosophy of special education curriculum should be the same as the for mainstream education. Likewise the goals and purposes of the curriculum should be the same as those for mainstream education (p. 1).

Since it takes longer to accomplish the same amount of academic progress for the educable mentally retarded when compared to their regular grade peers, a greater part of the task to develop their academic potential lies in the teacher's application of techniques that will decrease the frustration that will have been built up in many cases by the time these students reach the junior high age, which generally corresponds to the early teen years (Goldstein and Seigle, n.d.; Watts, 1965). If the amount of academic frustration can be decreased there is a greater chance that the student will remain in school longer, thereby enhancing his chances to reach a higher level of education.

Undoubtedly, many factors play a part as to whether or not educable mentally retarded students reach their academic potential. Not the least among them is teacher personality, teaching competence and effective teaching techniques. Teacher personality is not under investigation in this study although one potent factor needs to be mentioned: the teacher's acceptance of the child as a worthy individual. The most recent trend in special education is from segregation to integration, and the teacher's perception of the newly arrived handicapped child may greatly affect the child's success or failure in school. Karagianis and Nesbit (1979) comment on this situation:

Certainly the teacher has a key role in promoting good mental hygiene. The teacher's willingness to spend a little time with the exceptional child, her willingness to listen to what might appear on the surface to be naive enquiries, her willingness to cultivate a sense of worthiness in the child as a class member are salient and pervasive considerations in the process of integration (p. 30).

and:

Environmental stress, certainly in the educational sense, relates to the teacher and the atmosphere which she establishes through her manner, vocal tone, sensitivity and disposition toward the handicapped child. Primarily, it is she who establishes the environment as supportive or stressful. It is she who prompts and shapes the behavior of the new addition to her classroom (p. 31).

The teacher's acceptance or rejection of the child; the creation of a supportive or stressful environment; the aiding of the child to see his own worth or non-worth are all aspects of the teacher's personality. These factors are

too important to omit even though teacher personality is not a prime consideration of this study. The development of teaching competence via the utilization of sound curriculum techniques used by a teacher to achieve specifically stated educational goals, is considered by the writer to be of prime importance. It is assumed, in part, that the teacher competence stems from a knowledge of specific objectives and techniques, accompanied by the ability to translate this knowledge into effective learning experiences within the classroom.

Any program of academic study for educable mentally retarded children, although similar in many respects to the normal program must take into consideration some important differences (Goldstein and Seigle, n.d.; Reynolds and Birch, 1977; Watts, 1965). Certain of these differences are as follows:

1. The grasping of abstract principles or the making of generalizations are not strong points of educable mentally retarded children. All programs must be made as concrete as possible.
2. A greater amount of varied detail is needed within each horizontal level.
3. A greater attention to materials related to a higher than normal chronological age must be considered. An already frail self-concept will not react positively to materials written for lower age levels. This problem increases as the child grows older.

The self-concept is a very important factor to be considered, and more especially so when a child has difficulty with his school work and falls behind his peers in grade level. Karagianis and Nesbit (1979) comment on this unfortunate situation:

It is a fact of life that not all children who enter school progress in terms of what has been defined as the normal developmental rate. It has always been the case that for any one of a number of possible reasons (i.e., a developmental lag, mental retardation, emotional disturbance, physical handicap, a specific learning disability) a varying percentage of children encounter difficulties in the classroom. The great tragedy of this is that at a very early age it begins to cost these children, not only in terms of academic progress, but also in terms of self-image (pp. 27-28).

By the time these children have reached their early to mid-teen years, the lack of academic success and the degree of frustration have combined to provide them with low levels of self-esteem in many cases. It has also become apparent to many of these children that there is little or nothing to be gained by staying in school. Consequently the dropout rate is large at the junior high school level. The scope of this problem is great; some 12-16 percent of all school children are handicapped enough that they are unable to be helped educationally in the traditional type classroom (Robbins, 1975). If these children, educable mentally retarded among others with handicaps that affect their education, are to stay in school to reach their maximum academic potential, then teachers and programs have to be as effective as it is possible to make them.

Within recent years three major works have dealt with the problem of handicapped children in the schools. Their recommendations, or laws (U.S. Public Law 94-142), have been to the effect that the education of handicapped children should be on par with more normal children; that it be free of abnormal cost to parents or guardians, and that it take place in regular classrooms as much as possible. These works are: The CELDIC Report (1970) in Canada; U.S. Public Law 94-142 (Education for All Handicapped Children Act, 1975) in the United States; and the Warnock Report (1978) in Great Britain.

The actions taken in these three countries are likely to have far-reaching consequences in special education, one being that many of these children are likely to stay in school longer. However, if competent, specially trained teachers and especially tailored programs are not made ready for them, very little gain will have been made over the old system of segregated special education.

The purpose of this curriculum of language arts for educable mentally retarded students is to match students of junior high school age with academic activities so that they may experience more success than failure. If this can be achieved then there is a greater chance that students will choose to remain in school longer, thus enhancing their academic growth. Rawlyk (1977) makes a significant point regarding curriculum development for educable mentally retarded students:

A special education curriculum should help students develop a sense of personal worth and confidence. It should help them acquire a general knowledge of their social and physical environment and should help them gain life skills they will need as citizens, workers and consumers (p. 1).

Any program of studies for educable mentally retarded students must take into consideration the educational implications of low levels of personal self-worth and self-confidence of each student. Optimum self-actualization as an individual goal needs to be built into the program. Any educational program for these students that does not consider this factor can only serve to further weaken already poorly developed self-images.

Rationale for the Study

At the present time in Newfoundland there is no comprehensive curriculum for educable mentally retarded students. Students having trouble with academic work have often been placed in small groups in which they were treated to either a "modified" or "decelerated" version of the regular grade curriculum.

In order to have effective programs for educable mentally retarded students, it is first necessary to have specifically stated objectives. As Robbins (1975) states, "without guidelines and program goals we will drift hither and thither." In many cases educable mentally retarded students have already had more than enough educational drifting; any more may only serve to further alienate them

from school. What these students need now is to be placed in academic programs in which success is possible. The prospect of academic success, combined with non-threatening classroom situations, may well be the needed stimulus for students to start achieving again in scholastic matters.

This investigation will attempt to do the following:

1. Develop a set of specific objectives in language arts for educable mentally retarded students at the junior high school level.
2. Develop specific techniques and strategies by which the above objectives may be achieved.

The format of this program will be in the nature of a handbook with activities ranging from simple to fairly difficult, so that a student may be started at the beginning of each section or pick up at some point within, depending on the skills already possessed by that student.

Significance of the Study

Downey (n.d.), in a program guide for senior special education states:

We accept the philosophy that all children are entitled to an education according to the level of their capacity. To achieve this, the curriculum must be diversified so that it develops these capabilities to their full potential. It is inherent that a diversified curriculum must provide for a variety of programs (p. 1).

The language arts curriculum developed in this study is different from the regular grade curriculum in certain

respects, though not completely different. Reynolds and Birch (1977) comment on this aspect of curriculum for mentally retarded students:

Curriculum refers to all that is taught under school supervision. There is no curriculum for mentally retarded pupils that differs completely from the typical (pp. 294-295).

Perhaps the ideal situation would be for each teacher to create his or her own techniques and strategies in response to a standard set of objectives. Teacher workload, however, makes this a practical impossibility. This being so, the writer offers a pre-formulated set of objectives obtained from a variety of research data (see chapters 2 and 3) plus personal experience in working with educable mentally retarded students, along with techniques and strategies by which these objectives may be achieved.

The overall purpose of the objectives, techniques and strategies in this study is to bring educable mentally retarded students away from the failure syndrome, and place them on the road to greater academic success in school, and hopefully, greater success in life generally. Winkeljohann (1975) says, "Success comes in all colors, shapes and sizes. All kids need to succeed in school."

Definition of Terms

Since the following terms have some degree of variation in meaning in different geographical areas, they

have been defined as to their specific meaning in this investigation.

Educable Mentally Retarded: These are the children who are generally referred to as slow learners, and they fall into the I.Q. range of 50 to 80. In many cases they are able to achieve sufficient education to either partially or wholly support themselves in later life. They can usually function reasonably well in society.

Language Arts: The general meaning of the term language arts is the same as that used for regular grades, (i.e., reading, writing, listening and speaking). The language arts program in this investigation will be modified, based upon findings in the literature plus the writer's own experience with educable mentally retarded students, to fit the specific needs of the target population. In this program there will be a greater emphasis on listening and speaking than is normally the case with regular grade students.

Junior High School: In this investigation the term junior high school refers to the grades seven, eight and nine and normally includes the ages thirteen to fifteen. This is usually the case in Newfoundland when a school is designated as a junior high school. In an all grade school or a central or regional high, the term usually refers to grades seven and eight, with grade nine being placed with the senior section.

Limitations of the Study

In the development of objectives and instructional techniques for this handbook, certain limitations must be considered. The population of educable mentally retarded students requires a wide range of educational experiences in the language arts. While every attempt is to be made to include activities for their various needs, certain ones may be excluded due to the limited amount of professional data available in that particular area.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

This chapter will deal with the relevant research literature, reviewing areas of direct concern relative to this study. The first section will examine the literature concerning the rationale for having a set of specific instructional objectives that is intended only for educable mentally retarded students. The second section will deal with the importance of having a separate organized curriculum for educable mentally retarded students as opposed to following the regular grade curriculum at a "lower level" or "slower pace". The third section will deal with data relevant to the application of specific objectives and techniques in a separate program of language arts for the educable mentally retarded students at the junior high school level.

The Rationale for a Set of Instructional Objectives Intended Only for Educable Mentally Retarded Students

Robbins (1975) sums up both the situation and the task as far as program objectives are concerned.

Without guidelines and program goals we will drift "hither and thither". Our task therefore, as an educational district is to plan our programs in special education to the best of our ability with the limitations of our human and physical resources (p. 1).

One common feature that many educable mentally retarded students share is failure in academic studies (Goldstein and Seigle, n.d.). This is a prime reason why many of these students were placed in special education classes. Since these students have already experienced the reality of failure in school, any programs in which they are now placed should be prepared to deal with this failure syndrome before it becomes ingrained as part of their characters. Considering the history of academic failure, it is of extreme importance for each child to understand that success is possible in practical academic areas (e.g., reading, mathematics, study skills). A sense of possible success on the part of educable mentally retarded students is necessary for the establishment of any realistic motivation to attempt further academic achievement (Nist, 1974).

Frustration and self-devaluation are often characteristics of educable mentally retarded children (Goldstein and Seigle, n.d.). It logically follows that any statement of instructional objectives must consider this reality. Reynolds and Birch (1977) comment on this aspect of stated objectives:

Projections should fall within the range of reasonable anticipation for attainment for the exceptional child. They should not be so difficult that they lead to frustration (p. 128).

Any instructional guidelines that are designed to accommodate the slow learner must make provision for differing rates of learning. They conclude by stating that:

Projections should have sufficient scope to hold open the possibility that the child will make unexpected gains or enhance expected ones (p. 128).

A short term instructional objective should be derived from a goal, which is an expression of anticipated growth in developmental skills and a knowledge base in an educational program over time (Reynolds and Birch, 1977). Winkeljohann (1973) summarizes the conceptual thesis of this idea with a new twist to an old axiom. She feels that the cart should follow the horse and that the horse needs to travel somewhere with a specific purpose in mind. Instructional objectives need to be derived from the scope of a program's final outcome.

Self-devaluation, resulting in feelings of inferiority, is one of the more common features of educable mentally retarded students (Goldstein and Seigle, n.d.). Any set of objectives for these students, no matter what the subject, must consider the accumulation of these potentially harmful feelings, and seek to adjust the objectives so that a reasonable degree of success may be anticipated. In A Program Guide of Social Skills for Special Education, Allegheny County, Maryland (1960), this point is stated as follows:

To maintain self-confidence, the child must experience more success than failure. He must achieve recognition and approval. Constant rebuff, frustration or failure, particularly in situations over which he has no control, are likely to result in lowered expectations of himself, not in improved learning. Good education is challenging, not frightening (p. vii).

Constant expectations of success are as unreal as constant expectations of failure. After the students have learned that it is possible for them to succeed, they must learn to accept the fact that a certain amount of failure is an inevitable part of living (Goldstein and Seigle, n.d.). They go on to say:

Learning to take failure in his stride and to evaluate the cause may help the child to acquire the skill of studying the situation as best he can in order that he might anticipate those factors of failure highlighted by previous experiences (p. 13).

Any statement of objectives must also consider the fact that many educable mentally retarded students expect to fail. In attempting to correct this situation, it is necessary to enable students to realistically anticipate success as well as failure. Expectations of guaranteed success in students with learning problems are as unreal as constant expectations of failure. Neither is true to life (Goldstein and Seigle, n.d.).

Reynolds and Birch (1977) suggest that for students with learning problems, it is important that aims and objectives be established as targets of individual learning. Without individual targets there can be no effective programs for these students. Objectives generally, should express a purpose and an intention, specifying the "main aims" of a program (Moffett and Wagner, 1976). They discuss the importance of stating aims in the following citation:

Stating aims is a very important process, because statements of aims become the touchstones to which everything is referred. Means are chosen to fit aims. Materials, methods, plant, personnel, evaluation - all follow from key decisions about what people want (p. 404).

For educable mentally retarded students at the junior high school level, age presents another problem which must be considered in curriculum development for them. In addition to frustration and self-devaluation, many of these children are older, some of them significantly older than their regular grade counterparts. The age factor alone would present problems to these children, even if there were no other significant obstacles to their academic progress. Savage and Mooney (1979) state that effective learning is more likely to take place if the instructional phase of the curriculum takes place in juxtaposition with the developmental status of the child. They comment on this point:

When the status of the child and the components of instruction are aligned, learning is effective and teaching is effective. When there is a significant discrepancy between the two, teaching and learning are reduced to exercises in mutual frustration (p. 217).

The above statement concerning the relationship of age to learning experiences is an important factor to be considered when drawing up statements of aims and objectives for educable mentally retarded students. If the aims and objectives for them are not realistic in terms of their mental characteristics, intelligence quotient, chronological and mental ages, students may decide to opt for an alternative

that has now become available because of their increasing age. This alternative, simply stated, is dropping out of school. It is a dichotomy, not merely between success versus failure, but rather which option will present the lesser amount of frustration.

The Rationale for a Separate Program of Language
Arts for Educable Mentally Retarded Students

Concerning the notion that adjusted programs are necessary for educable mentally retarded students, Robbins (1975) contends that:

...it is widely recognized that a small number of children are so different from the average in one or more dimensions that it is unrealistic to expect regular education alone to serve them adequately.

If these children and youth are to be given as great an opportunity to achieve their potential as more typical children, they require a program of Special Education ranging from a short period of time to many years (p. 2).

Robbins quotes from the Council for Exceptional Children, in its 1966 report on professional standards, commenting on exceptional children and on programs for them:

...those children who have physical, intellectual, social or emotional deviations to such a degree that curriculum modification must be provided for them in the schools (p. 2).

In order to develop a curriculum for educable mentally retarded students, it is first necessary to examine the regular school curriculum from the point of view that it needs to be altered to fit the specific needs of these students.

Reynolds and Birch (1977) say that the term 'curriculum' refers to all that is taught under school supervision. L'Abate and Curtis (1975) refer to a curriculum as basically concerned with the specific program of an educational institution and should include all the activities that are planned for the students of the school. Yet, as already noted, there is a small number of students for whom the regular grade curriculum is inadequate. It is for this 'small number' that a modified form of the regular curriculum is necessary. In A Curriculum Guide for the Educable Mentally Handicapped in Alberta (1965), it is stated that:

A curriculum is usually prepared with the needs of the larger number of 'average' students in mind. It is seldom well-suited either to the very bright students on the one hand or the very dull students on the other (p. 1).

Since the regular curriculum does not adequately meet the needs of the target population, the question arises as to the nature of a curriculum that will do so. Reynolds and Birch (1977) emphasize the fact that there is no curriculum for mentally handicapped students that differs completely from the curriculum for the main body of more typical students. In general it is felt that in addition to academic skills, there should be greater emphasis on social, personal and occupational skills than is normally the case for regular grade students (Goldstein and Seigle, n.d.; Kirk, 1972; L'Abate and Curtis, 1975; Rawlyk, 1977). Kirk (1972) comments

particularly on the skills which educable mentally retarded students do not pick up incidentally, and as a consequence, these skills should be included in a curriculum for them.

In broader concepts, the programs should stress the development of (1) social competence, (2) personal adequacy and (3) occupational competence. Social competence refers primarily to the ability of the individual to get along with his fellow men, that is, his family, his school and neighborhood mates, and other members of the community. Personal adequacy refers to his ability to live with himself in some sort of equilibrium. Occupational competence refers to his ability to support himself partially or totally in some productive activity (p. 198).

What needs to be remembered in the context of this investigation is that the regular grade curriculum is designed for people without handicaps affecting their learning capabilities. The planning of a curriculum for educable mentally retarded students must consider the very important factor that these children are all handicapped to a greater or lesser degree in ways that affect their learning abilities. Gulliford (1971) provides a summation as to what programs should aim at in order to better assist educable mentally retarded students to achieve some measure of success in academic matters.

The first and overriding aim of any form of organization is that children should receive the special treatment and education that they need in order to ensure their optimum development and to minimize their handicaps (p. 6).

The above citation sums up very well the aim of the program of language arts for educable mentally retarded students drawn up in this investigation.

Educable Mentally Retarded Students in This Program
(of Language Arts)

Since educable mentally retarded students have special educational needs that cannot be adequately met by the regular school curriculum, this section will deal with an examination of these needs and how this curriculum might provide for said needs.

It should be remembered that educable mentally retarded students are different, but not completely different from their regular grade peers. They have the same fundamental needs as do all children. In A Curriculum Guide for the Educable Mentally Handicapped (1965) for the Province of Alberta, these basic needs are emphasized:

Certainly, like all children, they have the fundamental needs for love, security, recognition, a sense of achievement, and a sense of belonging (p. 1).

Rawlyk (1977) also emphasizes the fact that educable mentally retarded students are more like their regular grade counterparts than they are different. She says:

Educable mentally handicapped students are more like normal students in terms of physical, personal and social characteristics than they are different. Frequently, the negative social characteristics that may be observed in the educable mentally handicapped are the by-products of the inability to handle the expectations placed on them by home, school and community. Frequently, the only significant handicap that these young people have is limited academic potential (p. 1).

Considering that the basic needs of educable mentally retarded children are fundamentally the same as those of regular grade students, then the overall purpose of education for them will be the same as for all students. Rawlyk comments further:

The philosophy of a special education curriculum should be the same as that for mainstream education. Likewise, the goals and purposes of this curriculum should be the same as those for mainstream education. A special education curriculum should help students develop a sense of personal worth and confidence. It should help them acquire a general knowledge of their social and physical environment and should help them gain life skills that they will need as citizens, workers and consumers. In brief, the objective of this curriculum is to pave the way for optimum self-actualization of the target population (p. 1).

Since the basic human needs of all students are similar, then the overall goals of education should be similar for them all. These goals, as stated in the Illinois Plan for Special Education for Exceptional Children (n.d.) are as follows:

- (1) self-realization;
- (2) human relationship;
- (3) economic efficiency;
- (4) civic responsibility.

Yet, as already noted, there are a small number of children who cannot achieve these admirable goals within the framework of the regular school curriculum because of problems which affect their learning ability. They fall behind in grades in a regular classroom situation (Dunn, 1963; Robbins,

1975). Dunn comments further on the implications of this situation:

The data suggests that retarded pupils who remain in the regular grades slip further and further behind, until finally their gains and achievements are only about one-third of expectancy. In the meantime, the brighter pupils have been neglected and the mental health of the teacher and retarded pupils is badly strained (p. 110).

The question now arises as to what differences must be considered when planning curriculum development for educable mentally retarded children.

In A Curriculum Guide for Educable Mentally Handicapped (1965) for the Province of Alberta, some of the characteristics that affect their education are listed.

They are as follows:

1. he may be older than normal for his grade;
2. he may appear emotionally maladjusted or be a behavior problem;
3. he may have an extremely narrow interest range, and may be limited to the immediate and the concrete;
4. he may be less able to generalize than the average student;
5. he may be slow in reaction time and have a short attention span and poor concentrative abilities;
6. he will probably have an early history of slower developmental rate than the average child;
7. he may have poor general health.

Goldstein and Seigle (n.d.) say that educable mentally retarded children learn at a slower rate than do regular grade

children and they rarely learn as much, particularly in academic areas. They also state that these children are more prone to frustration and self-devaluation than are more typical children. Regarding the learning characteristics of educable mentally retarded students, they state that:

1. they are more prone to oversimplify concepts;
2. they have limited ability in generalization;
3. they have short memory and attention span;
4. there are limitations to their incidental learning;
5. they are retarded in language development (pp. 14-17).

Clearly, with such limitations to their learning ability, the main goals of education, as previously stated, may not be possible for educable mentally retarded students within the framework of the regular curriculum. In spite of the current trend of integrating as many educationally handicapped children as possible into the regular stream, there are still those for whom a greater or lesser amount of curriculum modification is necessary.

Reynolds and Birch (1977) say that in the early part of this century, up until 1935 or 1940, educators tried to remedy curriculum problems for students with learning disabilities in three ways:

1. the regular curriculum was slowed down;
2. the regular curriculum was simplified;
3. the regular curriculum was stretched out (p. 295).

These modifications of the regular curriculum showed that educators were becoming cognizant of the fact that the curriculum was not without its weaknesses.

At a later period came greater individualization of instruction in which academic skills were supplemented by social, personal and occupational skills (Reynolds and Birch, 1977). Clearly, more conscious efforts were being made to satisfy the educational needs of all students.

The most recent trend to help students with many types of disabilities that affect their learning potential is mainstreaming. The term 'mainstreaming' is synonymous with the terms 'normalization' and 'integration' (Karagianis and Nesbit, 1979). Reynolds and Birch (1977) state their ideas about mainstreaming as follows:

The locus of action in mainstreaming is the regular class and school; the major effort required there is to develop and support the classroom settings and programs so that they can serve effectively the children who have special educational needs. One of the basic components of mainstreaming is the provision of individualized school programs for all children including those who are exceptional, so that fewer displacements from the mainstream to special isolated classes are necessary (p. 4).

They go on to contend that:

Broadly speaking, mainstreaming is based on an inclusive attitude or general predisposition towards the education of children; that is, to provide education for as many children as possible in the regular class environment. But the regular teacher, alone or with help, will not always be the optimal instructor for all pupils; hence a full continuum of instructional arrangements to meet the needs of individual children is integral to mainstreaming, but each

displacement from a regular teacher to a specialist in another setting, even in the same school, must be justified and negotiated with the student and parents (pp. 4-5).

Although mainstreaming is a current and popular trend in the desegregation of special education classes, the move is not without its opponents. Time Magazine for June 16, 1980, in an article on education says:

The law (Public Law 94-142) is theoretically useful and just, as a means of avoiding unwarranted discrimination. But in practice it often puts an overwhelming strain on the teacher. "Mainstreaming is ludicrous," says Detroit counsellor Jeanne Lathan. "We have children whose needs are complicated: a child in the third grade who has already been in 16 schools, children who need love and attention and disrupt the classroom to get it. Ten percent of these students in Detroit's classrooms can't conform and can't learn. These children need a disproportionate amount of the teacher's time. It's a teacher's nightmare - she can't help them, but she never forgets them" (p. 59).

In the present trend of integration of special education children into regular classrooms, many of these students will need remedial or back-up services to help them cope with regular grade work. The program of language arts developed in this investigation is not for them. This program is intended for those students who will still need to spend most of their time in small groups. The major thrust of this program is for three flexible groups of students in a small group setting.

Basically the program involves a language arts continuum, along which each group moves at its own pace.

CHAPTER III

OBJECTIVES

The development of this language arts curriculum for educable mentally retarded students at the junior high school level follows a three stage procedural model: first, the gathering of data; second, the selection of relevant data pertinent to the objectives; and third, the drawing up of guidelines for the development of techniques and strategies used in this program.

The gathering of data was from three sources: first, a search of the literature relevant to the topic of this investigation; second, a computer search of the ERIC (microfiche) documents; and third, a standard letter (see Appendix A) was sent to all provincial and state departments of education in Canada and the United States respectively. This letter requested materials or information on the topic of language arts for educable mentally retarded students at the junior high school level. There was somewhat over a fifty percent response to this letter; no follow up was done to increase the percentage of responses.

The criterion for the selection of data relevant to objectives was fivefold: first, suitability for the age group of the target population; second, consideration of the grade range; third, similarity to the Newfoundland regular language arts curriculum; fourth, ensuring that the requirements of the objectives might be met by observable means;

and fifth, ensuring that students have a reasonable chance of success in this program.

Specific instructional guidelines for the implementation of techniques and strategies to accomplish the stated objectives will be given in the next chapter.

This chapter will describe the specific instructional objectives to be utilized within the framework of this handbook and establish a theoretical base for them. The model of basic objectives to be utilized in this program will be presented.

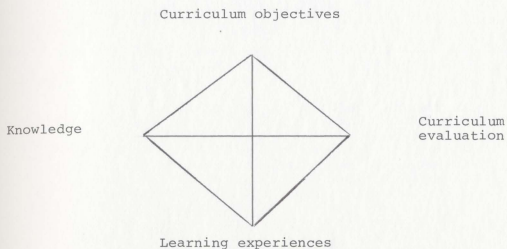
Taba (1962) presents the following model of curriculum development:

1. diagnosing needs;
2. formulating specific objectives;
3. selecting content;
4. organizing content;
5. selecting learning experiences;
6. organizing learning experiences;
7. evaluation;
8. checking for balance and sequence (pp. 347-379).

All the foregoing points have been, or will be, dealt with in this language arts program for junior high school educable mentally retarded students.

A simpler model of the curriculum is one by Kerr (1972). He proposes four basic questions in the making of a new curriculum: What is its purpose? What subject matter is to be used? What learning experiences and school organization are to be provided? How are the results to be

assessed? Kerr's model says nothing about objectives, content, techniques or strategies, but it does suggest important facets which must be considered in curriculum development. The following is Kerr's model of curriculum:



The questions raised by Kerr (1972) have also been, or will be, dealt with in this curriculum of language arts for educable mentally retarded students at the junior high level.

The curriculum developed in this program is for students receiving special educational services; many of them will have already done the regular language arts program in the primary and elementary grades but have not acquired sufficient skills to successfully continue under the regular school curriculum. This program will take some of the language arts skills intended for a lower age group and adapt them to the junior high level for the target population. It is hoped that by increasing the language arts skills of

educable mentally retarded students at this stage, the net result will be an enhancing of their overall academic standing.

Overall Goals and Objectives: Theoretical Framework

Moffett and Wagner (1976) use the term 'discourse' to designate all the language arts. They explain this term further:

It is handy to have a term that covers at the same time all four of the basic language arts - speaking, listening, reading and writing. For this reason we will use throughout this book another term not common in schools - discourse. It designates all communication in the medium of language, oral or written. As literacy catches the two-way nature of coding between spoken and written words, discourse catches the four-way nature of verbal communication: we may send or receive orally or in writing. A single instance or discourse is any complete communication having a sender, a receiver and a message bound by a purpose. A discourse, for example, would be a conversation, a lecture, a letter or journal, poem or short story, ad or label. It is critical to understand that a discourse is a whole, not a part. Because it is staked out by the superstructure of language - sender - receiver - message - it is the largest unit of language and hence the only unit of language that is not partial. A complete discourse is the only language unit worthy of being called a language unit... (p. 12).

Dobbin (1972) uses a similar total approach to language arts. She says, "To be literate today is to be efficient in the totality of language skills." The primary goal of language arts in school is the effective usage of language in life. Many educable mentally retarded children have not developed language skills on par with their regular grade counterparts.

Smith (1972) comments on the relationship between language and life:

Language is an abstraction from behavior; it is life being lived or life recorded, a system of meanings and a system of signs. It is because man has language that he is a high level animal (p. 7).

Ability in abstraction, as already noted, is one of the weaknesses commonly found in educable mentally retarded children.

Smith, Goodman and Meredith (1970) comment on the development of language in children:

The ability of children to think symbolically and to produce sound symbols makes it possible for children to learn language. The need for children to communicate makes it necessary for children to learn language (p. 11).

At a later stage the necessity to read and write develops, having been founded upon the receptive and expressive language arts oracy skills of listening and speaking.

Many children acquire all these abilities without any great amount of difficulty. Educable mentally retarded children, however, have not usually been so fortunate in the development of language skills; this is why all facets of language development must be included in a language arts curriculum intended for them. Curriculum goals and instructional objectives in language arts for them must reflect this need for total language development.

Reynolds and Birch (1977) say that objectives should be derived from goals:

A short-term instructional objective should be derived from a goal, which is an expression of anticipated growth in developmental skills and a knowledge base in an educational program over time (p. 129).

Before discussing specific instructional objectives for educable mentally retarded students, it is necessary to examine the goals and objectives for regular grade children in language arts.

Goldstein and Seigle (n.d.) express the following goals of language development generally:

1. to build up each child's understanding of language;
2. to develop for the child an adequate speaking vocabulary;
3. to help him express himself clearly and in a logical manner (p. 172).

The above stated goals can hardly be different for educable mentally retarded students.

Smith (1972) expresses a number of objectives and sub-objectives for regular grade language arts.

1. Each child needs to experience language (remarkably) in dynamic and relevant ways all day, every day, so that he can communicate comfortably in every way open to him, and without unnecessary pressures.
2. Each child must acquire necessary communication skills so that he may express himself effectively in all media:
 - a. To listen effectively and for a variety of purposes.
 - b. To speak effectively in many kinds of social situations.
 - c. To spell acceptably as a social courtesy.
 - d. To write legibly and with ease.

- e. To learn correct word usage as a social courtesy.
 - f. To use capitalization and punctuation as a social courtesy.
 - g. To use grammar correctly as a social courtesy.
 - h. To use reference material effectively.
 - i. To use word forms correctly.
3. Each child needs to come to appreciate the beauty of language itself, the effective use of words, and creative ways they may help him express his own original thoughts.
 4. Each child needs to find such satisfaction in his communication experiences that he will develop a healthy attitude toward communicating in all media and will develop his communication skills even without the assistance of a teacher (pp. 91-93).

Admirable as the above cited objectives are, the meeting of their requirements are not all possible for educable mentally retarded children because of restrictions to their learning ability. As Goldstein and Seigle (n.d.) say, "... their rate of learning is slower and they rarely learn as much, particularly in academic areas".

When drawing up objectives for educable mentally retarded children, there are other factors to be considered in addition to curriculum content. These factors affect the basic personality of these children and are central to the issue as to whether or not sufficient motivation to learn will occur. Chief among these factors are:

1. Learning disabled children have all the same basic needs as do so-called normal children (Curriculum Guide for Educable Mentally Handicapped, 1965) in the Province of Alberta.
2. To maintain self-confidence, these children must experience more success than failure in academic matters (Special Education Guide for Allegany County, 1960).

3. After learning that success in academic matters is possible, they must also learn to accept a certain amount of failure as an inevitable part of life (Goldstein and Seigle, n.d.).

Although the target population of this study corresponds in age to children at the junior high school level, their academic grade range may be all the way from grade one to grade five. Objectives must endeavor to span this grade range.

Rawlyk (1977), in A Curriculum Guide for the Educable Mentally Handicapped, Division III for the Province of Alberta, states the major communication objectives for that province.

1. Recognizing communication.
2. Identifying factors that affect communication.
3. Using communication media.
4. Initial steps in reading - understanding the relationship of thought units and sentences to simple charts and stories.
5. Initial steps in reading words.
6. Word recognition skills - initial word - structural analysis skills.
7. Word recognition skills - intensive, systematic, phonic analysis techniques.
8. Word recognition skills - advanced word structural analysis techniques.
9. Independent reading with fluency and comprehension - skills required for reading complex phrases, thought units and sentences.
10. Independent reading with fluency and comprehension - skills required.
11. Reading for information, protection and pleasure - skills required for mature reading patterns.
12. Reading for information, protection and pleasure - reading as an extension of personal experience.
13. Applied writing skills.

Listening and Speaking

Listening and speaking are the oral components of a language arts program and in many cases will be taken together. Goldstein and Seigle (n.d.) contend that,

Since listening and speaking are so interrelated it is difficult to separate the teaching of them. A specific differentiation in presentation is not necessary so long as each receives the emphasis at the proper time and stage of development (p. 172).

The question arises as to the necessity to formally teach the skills of listening and speaking to educable mentally retarded students. Goldstein and Seigle provide an answer to this question.

The ability to listen and to speak are the keys to much of the child's learning. The child of average intelligence usually comes to school with adequate listening and speaking ability. This is not always the case with the child who is educable mentally handicapped. He often must be started in the very early stages of training to listen purposefully and to speak effectively. Because he encounters so much difficulty in developing these fundamental skills, specific and consistent training must be undertaken for them (p. 172).

Rawlyk (1977) comments on the rationale for formally teaching effective listening and speaking skills to educable mentally retarded students.

Effective communication is essential for social competency. Underlying all the habits, attitudes, skills and understandings which aid the educable mentally handicapped individual in getting along with others is the ability to communicate. These students need to develop the ability to engage in conversation and to express their ideas effectively. Continuous effort must be made to develop vocabulary and the ability to listen for meaning (p. 223).

Weber (1974) provides a valid reason why listening should be formally taught to educable mentally retarded children in the early stages of adolescence. Listening should be taught

...because they can become good listeners. By the time of their adolescence, slower learners with their negative self-image and strong tendency to avoid or reject anything that is not immediately appealing have usually become notoriously bad listeners. That is, their listening habits are bad ones. A course in listening then would be designed to make them aware of these bad habits (p. 64).

As far as auditory skill is concerned, Petty, Petty and Becking (1973) indicate that steps may be taken which will improve this skill.

Listening implies more than just hearing, and this is an important implication. Perhaps little can be done about reducing many of the sounds around us, but we can do something about deciding what we listen to and how we can do this listening most effectively (p. 139).

The importance of selective and effective listening cannot be overemphasized because so large a part of learning must take place via the listening modality.

Goldstein and Seigle (n.d.) state that two types of learning disability educable mentally retarded children display are short memory and short attention span. This means that students will become easily distracted after short periods of time. Therefore, it is important that a developmental listening plan be made a formal part of the language arts program for them, rather than trusting this skill to be developed incidentally.

Since listening is such an important part of the language arts program for educable mentally retarded students, it logically follows that listening must be taught with specific purposes in mind. Petty, Petty and Becking (1973) list fifteen purposes for listening.

1. To get the main idea.
2. To select details.
3. To establish a mood.
4. To answer questions.
5. To summarize information.
6. To separate fact from opinion.
7. To gain a visual image.
8. To appreciate and enjoy.
9. To recognize propaganda, bias or prejudice.
10. To determine the speaker's purpose.
11. To adapt information presented to a particular need.
12. To evaluate in terms of some criteria.
13. To perceive relationships.
14. To interpret unusual or especially appealing language.
15. To show courtesy (p. 142).

In the pamphlet Core Learnings in the Language Arts (n.d.), published by the Newfoundland Department of Education, the following objectives are suggested at the regular grade six level:

- A willingness to listen courteously.
- Great emphasis on attentive listening - for more extended periods of time and to more complex presentations (the skill of attending for 30-40 minutes should be well established before pupils enter secondary school).

- The skill of listening meaningfully to content despite poor articulation, distracting mannerisms of speaker, outside noise, etc. (a combination of courteous and attentive listening).
- The ability to follow through in purposeful and critical listening activities.
 - a. to identify main idea
 - b. to listen accurately and follow directions
 - c. to follow sequence of items
 - d. to identify subordinate ideas
 - e. to relate supporting details
 - f. to compare and contrast
 - g. to prepare an outline of main ideas
 - h. to form opinions
 - i. to make justifiable inferences
 - j. to make judgements
 - k. to use context to get the meaning of an unknown word
 - l. to listen to problems being offered for solution
 - m. to listen for the purpose of organizing the points of view presented in order to draw meaningful conclusions
 - n. to evaluate critically any emotional appeal or propaganda techniques
 - o. to detect differences in meaning conveyed by the voice through inflection, emphasis and quality.
- The ability to listen appreciatively and creatively to literature presented in oral reading or dramatic form:
 - a. listening to plot, mood, etc.
 - b. responding emphatically to characterization
 - c. developing imagery - using what one hears creatively
 - d. enjoys music, song and poetry
 - e. responding to figurative language, humour, picturesque speech
 - f. being aware of the ability of the speaker
- The ability to evaluate listening.
- Establishes cooperatively (with teacher and class group) criteria for good listening.

Weber (1974) lists seven purposes for listening for the adolescent educable mentally retarded learner.

1. Practice in straightforward comprehension.
2. Practice in listening to instructions.

3. Practice in listening for vital details.
4. "I-get-all-the-facts" listening.
5. Into the rut listening (to get out of the rut).
6. Filter-listening for propaganda techniques.
7. Listening over distractions.

The Model of Basic Objectives for Listening
in this Investigation

The overall goal for the language art skill of listening in this investigation is to help educable mentally retarded students to listen as selectively and effectively as possible.

The criteria for the selection of instructional objectives, as already noted, is fivefold:

1. suitability for the age group of the target population;
2. consideration of the grade range of the target population;
3. similarity to the Newfoundland regular language arts curriculum;
4. ensuring that the requirements of the objectives may be met by observable means;
5. ensuring that students have a reasonable chance of success in this program.

When the foregoing criterion for the selection of objectives is utilized, the following objectives emerge for educable mentally retarded children in listening in this program. An overriding consideration is the writer's ten years of experience with educable mentally retarded children.

The students will be able to:

1. listen for details;
2. listen to carry out instructions;

3. listen to compare and contrast;
4. listen for main idea or ideas;
5. listen to summarize information;
6. listen to follow sequence of events;
7. listen to determine cause and effect relationship;
8. listen to separate fact from opinion;
9. listen to make inferences;
10. listen to draw conclusions;
11. listen to predict outcomes.

Speaking

In the language arts, oracy involves listening and speaking. As Goldstein and Seigle (n.d.) contend, "... listening and speaking are so interrelated it is difficult to separate the teaching of them".

It has been the experience of the writer that many adolescents are reluctant to express themselves formally before a group of their peers. A structured program in speaking is necessary for educable mentally retarded students, even though their listening skills may not be inadequate. Even when a student is not reluctant to express himself or herself orally, there is often a need to make that expression more effective. Moffett and Wagner (1976) comment on the nature of encouraging children to speak.

Because constant practice and good interaction are the best teachers of speaking and listening, peer talk in small groups should be a staple learning activity for all grades, allotted a large amount of time in the curriculum (p. 70).

Smith (1972) expresses the need for an organized program in speaking.

A sound, creative program in oral expression is carefully planned with definite objectives in mind, is structured in its execution and is evaluated in a manner appropriate to the objective (p. 150).

For educable mentally retarded children, the development of oral language is of great importance. Many of these children at the junior high school level are still in the very early stages of reading. In order to progress well in reading, they must first be able to use oral language as effectively as possible. Savage and Mooney (1979) contend that:

Reading is a language activity, and therefore linguistic factors are primarily readiness factors as well. One must be able to understand oral language before being expected to deal with language in print. In readiness programs, general language - thinking factors are developed through popular language activities like show-and-tell, discussion, listening exercises, poetry and story telling, creative dramatics, conscious vocabulary development, conversation, and all other formal and informal encounters with language that are typically a regular part of the child's early educational experiences (p. 25).

They go on to say:

Expressive language is an equally vital part of readiness training for the slow learner. In oral language activities, the focus is on helping the child expand his/her speaking vocabulary and improving his/her ability to manipulate verbal concepts.

In a Curriculum for Secondary Schools, English Language Arts for Educable Mentally Retarded Students (1972) the importance of oral communication is again emphasized.

As educators, we provide our students with those basic skills which will enable them to cope satisfactorily with the world they live in. No single skill is more paramount in this regard than the child's ability to express himself orally and to comprehend what is said to him. After they have left school, young people make less use of reading or writing, but will certainly make daily use of oral language to communicate with others. In terms of work, they must be able to express themselves verbally in job interviews, to comprehend oral instructions while on the job and maintain satisfactory relationships with supervisors and co-workers. The ability to maintain a satisfactory conversation is essential if our students are not to be left out of social groups. In fact, both in and out of school, language is fundamental to much of what we do. What is true of the normal child is equally true, if not more so, for the EMR pupil, who already has so many disadvantages to overcome (p. 7).

In the pamphlet Core Learnings in the Language Arts (n.d.), the following objectives in speaking are suggested for regular grade six students in Newfoundland schools:

The student

- Converses with ease, fluency, and courtesy in social situations (conversations, introductions, telephone conversations, etc.).
- Shares specific experiences.
- Learns to discipline his thinking, listening and speaking and to plan orally with others for a particular event (e.g., the agenda of a club meeting, a Halloween party, etc.).
- Makes oral reports on themes presented in any curriculum area (The grade six pupil acquires an understanding of his topic through research, careful appraisal and selection of facts, and a planned presentation that stimulates the interest of the listener. Pupils should learn how to use audio-visual materials to complement the spoken word.).

- Furthers the skill of discussion. Shares, through discussion, information and opinions on a topic, under the guidance of a chairman.
- Conducts interviews, and reports on the interviews orally and in writing.
- Continues activities in creative dramatics and in formal script dramatization.
- Participates in presenting poems and prose selections with more complex arrangements for choral speaking and reading. Voice quality, variety in pitch, and adjustment of tempo to the meaning being conveyed should show marked improvement.

IT IS THE RESPONSIBILITY OF THE TEACHER TO:

- Encourage good enunciation, pronunciation, and good usage by providing a model of excellence in speech.
- Read prose, poems and plays in such a way that pupils feel a lively emotional response to the selections.
- Provide many opportunities for pupils to converse, tell stories, report, dramatize plays and engage in creative dramatics, interpret oral reading, take part in verse choirs, practise social conventions, interview others, conduct meetings, make announcements, take part in assemblies, learn discussion techniques, and come to appreciate the beauty and power of oral communication (p. 25).

In the Curriculum for Secondary Schools, English Language Arts for Educable Mentally Retarded Students for the Province of Quebec (1972), the following objectives are given for oral communication:

Part 1

1. acquire a larger and more meaningful vocabulary;
2. use descriptive words in phrases;
3. opportunity to speak in thought units or sentences;
4. speaking clearly but purposefully;
5. identify words that rhyme;
6. discrimination and identification of objects as to colour, shape and size, position, left and right, likenesses and differences;

7. colour cues and safety signals and their meanings;
8. familiar signs and signals and their meanings, e.g., EXIT, ENTRANCE, BOYS, GIRLS, MEN, WOMEN;
9. facial expressions and body positions as cues in picture stories;
10. use appropriate gestures;
11. discuss simple pictures for thought content;
12. relate a story in proper sequence;
13. recall events in sequence;
14. participates in developing an experience chart to tell a story;

Part 11

1. express ideas clearly in common situations;
2. continue to expand vocabulary;
3. accuracy in asking and giving information;
4. improve speech habits;
5. begin to contribute freely and become an effective participant in discussions and conversations;
6. make simple presentations effectively before the group;
7. use of varied techniques for effective communication through speech;
8. work for pleasing voice quality;
9. know and transmit the mood of the story to the class;
10. distinguish between make-believe and real life;
11. tell a story in his own words;
12. participates in dramatizations and impersonations;
13. use common social courtesies;
14. self-criticism using the tape recorder;
15. use group criticism constructively.

Part 111

1. telephone skills:
 - a. when making a call;
 - b. when receiving a call;
2. interviews: when in an interview situation;
3. social situations: with a peer group.

Model of Basic Objectives in Speaking
in this Program

The overall objective in speaking in this program is that each student be able to express himself or herself orally as effectively as possible.

When the criteria for selection of objectives (see page 45) is applied, the following objectives emerge for this program: The student will be able to

1. use descriptive words meaningfully;
2. speak without straying from the main topic;
3. tell a story or describe a situation with the events in proper order;
4. use the telephone properly;
5. ask for and give information adequately;
6. speak before a group.

The specific techniques and strategies to accomplish the above objectives will be presented in chapter four.

Reading

Bond and Tinker (1973) define reading as follows:

Reading involves the recognition of printed or written symbols which serve as stimuli for the recall of meanings built up through the reader's past experience. New meanings are derived through manipulation of concepts already in his possession. The organization of these meanings is governed by the clearly defined purposes of the reader. In short, the reading process involves both the acquisition of the meanings intended by the writer and the reader's own contribution and reflection about these meanings (p. 22).

Savage and Mooney (1979) are more concise in their definition of reading.

Reading is a process of moving through printed language to meaning. How one achieves mastery of this complex human behavior - or fails to do so - is a process not yet fully understood (p. 14).

For educable mentally retarded children, the situation is primarily one of failure to learn to read. It is the aim of this investigation to improve their reading skills insofar as it is possible to do so, considering that in many cases, it is not simply a failure to read; rather it is a slower process of learning.

In the majority of cases, these children have already come through the primary and elementary grades, but have failed to learn to read adequately enough to continue under the regular school curriculum. By the time they have reached the junior high school level, many of them have already concluded that they cannot learn to read. Perhaps the teacher's biggest initial challenge is to motivate these students to want to read.

The importance of reading to academic development is beyond question. Goldstein and Seigle (n.d.), contend that:

Learning to read is one of the most important acquisitions for any child. This skill is basic to many activities both in childhood and at maturity. The ability to read is the key to adequate social-occupational adjustment. Reading is more than the ability to recognize and enunciate words. It encompasses word recognition and comprehension and places a premium on the ability of the child to integrate ideas achieved through the reading process into everyday behavior.

Educable mentally handicapped children have considerable difficulty in acquiring widespread skills in reading. Their problems in this area are directly related to their comparative difficulty in handling abstractions, developing generalizations and in expanding concepts. For these reasons the reading program for educable mentally handicapped children must provide for a thorough and consistent development of skills (p. 173).

Given the importance of reading, and the difficulty experienced in this area by educable mentally retarded children, the need for effective reading programs for them becomes obvious.

Goals and Objectives of Reading

Bond and Tinker (1973) state that:

The overall goal of reading instruction is to help each pupil to become as able and as diversified a reader as his capabilities, the available facilities and the instructional program permit (p. 28).

The subgoals of reading as listed by Bond and Tinker (1973) are as follows:

1. the basic understanding of words, sentences, paragraphs and stories;
2. maturity in reading habits and attitudes;
3. independence in reading;
4. efficiency in use of basic study skills;
5. maturity in five major classes of comprehension abilities:
 - a. reading for specific information;
 - b. reading to organize;
 - c. reading to evaluate;
 - d. reading to interpret;
 - e. reading in order to appreciate;
6. the SQ3R method;

7. maturity in adjusting to the reading demands of each discipline of human experience;
8. breadth of interest in reading and maturity of taste in all fields of human experience (pp. 28-32).

It needs to be kept in mind that Bond and Tinker are not dealing with retarded learners; they are dealing with retarded readers, whose intelligence quotients and other observable abilities attest to the fact that these students are reading below their ability. They make the point that a retarded learner can be expected to read normally according to his mental rather than his chronological age.

The objectives in this investigation must start at a low level because of the low level of mental ages of many of the target population. In a Curriculum Guide for the Educable Mentally Handicapped for the Province of Alberta (1965), this low level of academic skills is emphasized:

When reading readiness has been established, formal instruction in reading may be undertaken. Some children will reach this while in the junior class, others not until they are in the senior class (p. 22).

The objectives of this investigation must span the academic difference from a low of grade one or less, up to grade five, which is a minimum of two years behind the normal junior high school entrance grade, depending on the age of the student.

Many of the students for whom this investigation is intended will never become as good readers as their regular grade peers. Nevertheless, it is important to educate them as far as their mental capabilities allow, so that they have

a better chance to cope, wholly or partially, for themselves in later life, rather than being a financial burden on society.

Core Learnings in the Language Arts (n.d.), suggests the following objectives for regular grade six students in Newfoundland schools:

I. VOCABULARY

A. Word recognition (The word with its meaning)

- Accurately recognizes words presented as vocabulary in previous reading series used
- Develops sight reading with concept, of new vocabulary in basal series
- Learns specific vocabulary for the content subjects (the pupil's acquisition and continual expansion of concepts should be the content area teacher's concern as well as the concern of the language arts teacher)
- Becomes very aware that the extension of his vocabulary is important to further learnings

B. Word Attack Skills (In meaningful context)

- Reviews briefly, if necessary, the phonics skills taught in previous grades
- Continues without overemphasis to give learning time to structural analysis skills, e.g., ways of forming plurals, verb endings, prefixes, suffixes, syllabication, contractions, abbreviations, etc.
- Evidences ease with the dictionary and has no difficulty with alphabetizing, accent and guide words, diacritical marks

II. COMPREHENSION (Attitudes and skills)

(The teacher can find no higher goal in his teaching than ensuring for each pupil in his class the highest level of comprehension of which the pupil is capable.)

- A. The grade six pupil, in his oral and silent reading, should show evidence of reading comprehension abilities as he functions with such skills as these:

- Finds the main idea
- Identifies supporting details
- Recognizes the sequence of ideas
- Recognizes colourful language and imagery
- Understands figurative and idiomatic language
- Begins to understand propaganda devices
- Associates and classifies ideas
- Expresses points of view and makes personal reaction to the selection
- Draws conclusions
- Generalizes
- Evaluates and interprets character traits
- Detects author's mood and purpose
- Forms judgements and opinions
- Interprets attitudes, emotions and motives
- Makes comparisons
- Recognizes cause and effect relationships
- Makes inferences
- Supports opinions
- Recognizes author's purpose or point of view
- Discusses simply the structural elements of literature, i.e., plot, character, setting
- Appreciates poetry and drama

B. Reading - Study Skills

- Uses textbooks effectively - making maximum use of Table of Contents, section headings, glossary, etc.
- Acquires facility in the use of a dictionary
- Uses reference books effectively
- Understands graphs, maps, charts and tables
- Uses library resources, card catalogues, and periodical indexes
- Skims and scans reading material
- Acquires increasing facility with organizational skills, e.g., notetaking, outlining, summarizing, integrating ideas from various sources, etc.

III. ORAL READING

- Reads with good expression - suitable inflection
- Gets meaning across to audience
- Articulates words clearly
- Pronounces correctly
- Observes punctuation, and reads in thought patterns
- Varies tone, pitch and volume according to the situation
- Reads smoothly (eye-voice span)
- Looks at audience

IV. SILENT READING

- Links comprehension to speed
- Chooses an appropriate reading technique (the correct rate for certain content)
- Reads smoothly in phrase units
- Appreciates time for silent reading and reads for pleasure and information

(Beware of thinking that the statement "Reading is a developmental process" is a cliché. It is a fact. It cannot be assumed that one's ultimate ability to read critically and creatively is achieved at a particular point on the educational continuum such as Grade Four, Six, Eight or Ten) (pp. 26-28).

Goldstein and Seigle (n.d.), in The Illinois Plan for Special Education for Exceptional Children list the following objectives in reading for educable mentally handicapped children in the advanced class:

PRE-READING (continue as needed)

experiences (socialization)
 purposeful watching
 purposeful listening
 purposeful talking
 purposeful imitating
 sharing (work and Play)

READINESS (continue as needed)

auditory discrimination
 auditory comprehension
 visual discrimination
 visual comprehension
 articulation
 comprehensive speech

READING SKILLS (continue as needed)

left to right orientation
 associations
 sequence of events
 development of word attack
 development of memory span
 background of information
 sight vocabulary
 concept development

FUNCTIONAL READING (instructional and independent)

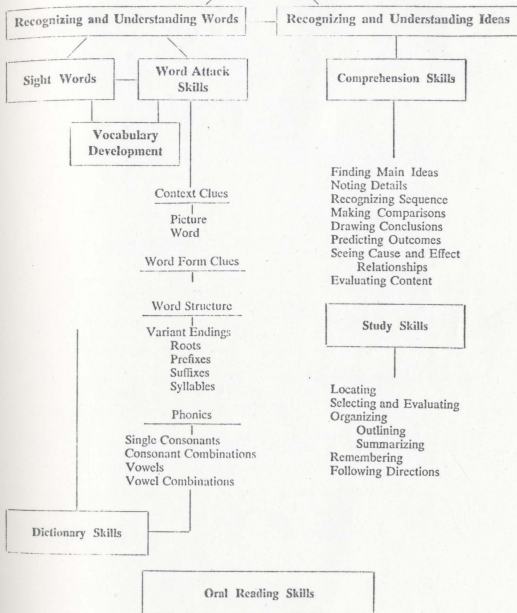
signs
 classroom charts
 instructional charts
 readers
 dictionary
 recipes
 newspapers
 letters (business-family)
 magazines
 catalogues
 books (p. 175)

Gerrard and McKinnes (1960) list the basic skills of reading as shown on the next page.

Petty, Petty and Becking (1973) list the following objectives in their language arts program:

1. to develop in each child skill in:
 - a. recognizing many words at sight;
 - b. gaining meaning quickly upon meeting unknown words and expressions by using one or a combination of the following: phonetic analysis, analysis of structure, configuration of the graphic symbol, contextual analysis, and the dictionary;
 - c. comprehending and interpreting the meanings of words, phrases and sentences;

THE READING SKILLS



- d. reading silently at speeds appropriate to the content and purpose;
 - e. reading orally fluently with suitable speed, expression, correct pronunciation and attention to pronunciation;
 - f. evaluating the content of what is read;
 - g. using books efficiently - locating information, using the library, etc.;
2. to provide many opportunities for rich and varied experience through reading;
 3. to develop a lasting interest in reading;
 4. to foster the resourceful and creative use of reading to meet particular needs and interests (p. 330).

Model of Basic Objectives for Reading
in this Program

The overall goal for reading for educable mentally retarded children in this program is that each child be able to read with understanding to as high a grade level as possible considering students' intelligence quotients and mental ages. When the criteria for selection of objectives (p. 45) is applied, the following objectives for reading emerge. The student will be able to:

1. build up a large store of sight words;
2. use structural analysis in word recognition;
3. use context clues as aids to word recognition;
4. note details;
5. follow instructions;
6. compare and contrast;
7. recall sequence;
8. see cause and effect relationships;
9. see the main idea or ideas;
10. predict outcomes;
11. use a dictionary;
12. use the SQ3R method of study.

Writing

The Curriculum for Secondary Schools, English

Language Arts (1972) for the Province of Quebec states:

The ability to express thoughts and ideas in writing is the last of the language arts to be developed. The EMR student requires systematic instruction in handwriting and spelling to enable him to fulfill not only occupational requirements but to communicate thoughts, feelings and experiences in letters, creative writing, and other written forms which add enjoyment and interest to life (p. 20).

It is necessary to note at this point that spelling is not meant to be a separate section in this language arts program. Spelling words are taken from the daily reading and writing that each child does, rather than being isolated word lists from a speller. It is the writer's opinion that spelling words should come out of and then be placed back into students' daily academic activities.

Goldstein and Seigle (n.d.) link writing with spelling and comment on the importance and difficulty of the two.

Writing and spelling are the tools of written communication and are difficult skills for the educable mentally handicapped child to acquire if he is not guided carefully through the various stages of writing development (p. 174).

Petty, Petty and Becking (1973) also emphasize the importance of writing.

Learning to write well is an elusive goal, one that for many persons is never reached. Yet, the importance of the goal to mankind is shown in many ways, especially by the amount of writing done daily. It is also shown by the fact that writing is taught from a child's first year in school through freshman year in college and beyond. Of

- course, the difficulty of learning to write accounts for much of the amount of time devoted to its teaching in school. But writing is in the school program also because it is satisfying, a way to communicate with others, and a means for expressing creativity and individuality.

- Writing involves many skills: the organization of ideas and thoughts into sentence, paragraphs and compositions; the mental-physical act of forming letters and words; the spelling of the words written; the pronunciation and capitalization of the words used; and a knowledge of matters of form and custom in the writing required for various communication situations (p. 163).

Obviously, the act of writing is a very important part of modern communication. The teaching of writing clearly requires well defined objectives along with imaginative teaching techniques.

In Core Learnings in the Language Arts (n.d.), the following objectives are suggested for writing in grade six in Newfoundland schools:

I. PRACTICAL OR FUNCTIONAL WRITING

Increases in the skill or making written reports (2 plus paragraphs). He can choose a subject for a report:

- a. outline the report
- b. keep to the topic
- c. use the library and reference materials
- d. tell enough in the report
- e. tell things in the right order
- f. gather information from many sources
- g. make notes and transcribe the notes into paragraphs
- h. use the dictionary to improve report
- i. use illustrative materials
- j. report accurately
- k. check the accuracy of printed statements
- l. compile a bibliography
- m. use acceptable manuscript form (neatness, appropriate spacing, even margins, etc.)

- refines the skill of letter writing, addresses envelopes
- fills in forms - application forms, library cards, subscription blanks, enrollment cards, etc.
- develops a proofreading guide and uses it
- continues the formal spelling program integrated with the Language Arts Program and is conscious of the need for correct spelling in his written work
- uses punctuation conventions - period, question mark, comma, quotation mark, exclamation mark
- uses the capitalization skills taught in previous grades and also learns to capitalize the names of countries; oceans; all proper nouns and proper adjectives; and titles when used with names, e.g., Premier Smith

II. CREATIVE OR PERSONAL WRITING

The pupil in the Language Arts Program in grade six shows increasing skills in

- ways of describing things and events. A pupil learns to be accurately and acutely aware of his world; to use a more vivid adverb, adjective, etc.
- characterizations of persons
- spinning a cohesive, gripping plot involving action and dialogue (the pupil uses literature models)
- writing original television scripts for TV programs, radio plays
- composing TV commercials and newspaper ads
- experimenting with poetry making, play writing, puns, etc.
- planning a class newspaper, a class book of the month's events, etc.

III. HANDWRITING

- writes legibly with economy of time
- makes a production neat and attractive
- views cursive writing as a useful and necessary tool

IV. USAGE

- understands that there is a certain standard usage which is useful to attain, e.g., subject-verb agreement; pronoun forms; appropriate use of possessive pronouns, distinction between its, the possessive pronoun and it's, the contraction for it is

V. GRAMMAR

- can separate basic sentences into subject and predicate
- knows the four most important word classes: noun, verb, adjective, adverb
- understands that nouns have a singular and plural
- differentiates between proper and common nouns
- recognizes personal pronouns
- understands that a sentence is a basic pattern with modifiers added
- knows that adverbs can be classified into categories of manner, time and place
- recognizes present, past and future verb tenses (pp. 28-29).

For some students in a class of educable mentally retarded children, even at the junior high school level, the objectives of writing must begin with the formation of letter shapes. Petty, Petty and Becking (1973) list the following objectives for regular grade children in handwriting for the intermediate and upper grades:

1. To write all the letters of the cursive alphabet, both upper and lower case, within a three-eighths-inch space line;
2. To understand and apply the following words in the handwriting vocabulary: size, slant, space, stops, letter shapes, undercurve, overcurve, retrace, guidelines, alignments, line quality, legibility;
3. To show growth in maintaining correct posture, hand position and movement;

4. To evaluate his own handwriting by using the class handwriting scale, the commercial scale posted in the classroom, the diagnostic chart, the cursive alphabet models, the standards for handwriting set by the class;
5. To help plan and conduct his own handwriting practice;
6. To maintain previously acquired manuscript skills and to use manuscript writing in appropriate situations (such as on posters, filling in forms and labelling materials) (p. 220).

Some students, however, will have passed the letter formation stage and are ready to start, if they have not already done so, more creative aspects of writing.

In a Curriculum Guide for Educable Mentally Handicapped for the Province of Alberta (1965) the following objectives in writing are given for the intermediate and senior levels:

Intermediate Level

- Continue supervised handwriting periods stressing:
 - letter forms
 - neatness and legibility
 - spacing and alignment
 - use of margins
- Learning to make up lists:
 - shopping lists
 - lists of materials needed for a project, etc.
- Learning to classify things in a list by categories and to arrange things in alphabetical order
- Writing sets of rules and sets of directions:
 - rules for taking out books from the class library
 - duties for classroom monitors
 - simple recipes, etc.
- Independent writing of sentences using spelling words and other new words learned

- Independent writing of short paragraphs, stories, book reports, etc.
- Learning of paragraph form:
 - placement of title
 - indentation
- Learning to keep to one topic in a paragraph
- Independent writing of friendly letters using correct form
- Writing of thank you notes, sympathy notes, notes of invitation, etc.
- Continued drill and practice on capitalization
- Continued drill and practice on punctuation adding:
 - use of semi-colon and colon
 - use of the apostrophe - to show possession
 - to mark elisions
 - use of quotation marks
- Learning the rules for forming plurals (correlate with spelling)
- Continued drill and practice extending to independent writing of sentences illustrating correct usage

Senior Level

- Continue as needed from intermediate level
- Continued practice in writing friendly letters
- Learning to write simple business letters using correct form:
 - requesting information or materials for a project
 - acknowledging receipt of same and expressing thanks
 - requesting permission to visit a plant
 - expressing thanks for courtesies extended, etc.
 - applying for a job
- Learning to write short advertisements:
 - room wanted
 - job wanted
 - articles for sale, etc.
- Learning to complete simple forms:
 - application forms
 - registration forms, etc.
- Learning to write sample job reports (pp. 12-14)

Model of Basic Objectives in Writing
in this Program

The overall objective in writing in this program is that students be able to express themselves as correctly and as creatively as possible. When the criteria for selection of objectives (p. 43) is applied, the following objectives emerge: The student will be able to

1. use correct end of sentence punctuation;
2. use commas correctly;
3. use possessives correctly;
4. use quotation marks correctly;
5. use capital letters correctly;
6. use describing words effectively;
7. write personal and business letters.

CHAPTER IV

A HANDBOOK OF LANGUAGE ARTS OBJECTIVES AND LESSONS FOR EDUCABLE MENTALLY RETARDED STUDENTS AT THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL LEVEL

Preface

Before beginning to work with the students, some preparation is necessary. It would be a good practice to type up master copies of the objectives for language arts, i.e., one page for listening, one for speaking, etc. Duplicate these master sheets and distribute copies of them to the students. Ask students to keep an account of their progress by checking each objective as it is achieved.

Ask students to buy four exercise books, one for each of the language arts and tape the appropriate set of objectives inside each front cover. Ask them to set aside two pages for each objective, e.g., pages 1 and 2 of the listening notebook would be entitled "Listening for Details".

The teacher is asked to read the whole lesson before beginning to use it in class. The full scope of the program, as well as each lesson is essential before attempting to use the program with the students.

Individual lessons are not meant to be accomplished in one class period. The teacher is free to take as much time with each lesson as is judged to be necessary. In some cases, the teacher may need to supplement the exercises with

additional activities. The possibility always exists that certain students will not master each objective, even though most of the class will have grasped a level of mastery for that particular objective.

It is recommended that two types of student groupings be utilized. At the earliest possible date in the school year, pair up students so that in each case a more academically advanced one works with and helps a less advanced one. These groupings will remain relatively stable throughout the school year.

The other type of grouping is based on student ability, so that there will be groups of lower, middle and higher achieving students. These groups will be flexible, allowing for a maximum amount of movement from one group to another.

If these types of groups are organized and managed carefully, with changes being made as they become necessary, then group work should be done with a minimum of time and frustration.

The materials used in the following lessons are geared to specific instructional reading levels. While the format of the instruction may stay the same, it might prove necessary to adapt the lesson using materials more suitable to a specific group's instructional level. The specific materials utilized in these lessons (e.g., The New Open Highways, Series Reader's Digest New Skill Builders, SRA

Lab IIA) were issued by the Division of Instruction, Newfoundland Department of Education and/or the Avalon Consolidated School Board.

Listening

Objective 1: Listening for Details

This section will present the concept of "detail" as it applies to listening, with an evaluation as to how well students can listen for details.

Materials

The New Open Highways. Level 2, Moving Ahead.
"Did you Ever Dream?" pp. 8-11.

The New Open Highways. Level 4, Seeking Adventure.
"Tower to the Moon," pp. 117-125.

The New Open Highways. Level 4, Seeking Adventure.
"Newsboy Makes the News," pp. 13-19.

Readiness

Before discussing the meaning of the term detail, ask students to do a number of tasks which will serve to illustrate the concept.

Have students close their eyes and listen to all the different sounds that may be heard. Ask them to open their eyes and identify as many of the sounds as they can remember.

Divide the class into three groups: ask one group to listen for sounds within the classroom; another to listen for sounds in the rest of the school; the other, to listen for sounds outside the school. This will help students to

listen selectively. Have each group recall as many sounds as they can.

Ask students to close their eyes again, saying that you will touch certain students on the shoulder, and each one will say one word in his or her normal tone of voice. The other students are to try to identify the speaker in each case.

Do the same exercise again, except that in this case each student will speak in a disguised voice, or make an animal sound.

Ask students to close their eyes again while the teacher makes sounds such as: drumming his fingers on a desk; crinkling a sheet of paper; tapping with his feet, etc. Students are asked to identify the sounds.

Let students think that details apply to sounds only, ask them to recall as many things as possible that each one saw on the way to school today. Have them close their eyes and name as many different things as they can in the classroom, in the school gym, the school yard, the cafeteria, etc.

Have them play games such as "In my trunk I have a book." The first person says, "In my trunk I have a book." The next person says, "In my trunk I have a book and a balloon." Each other person repeats what has been said and then adds one more item. This exercise is excellent for memory training as well as teaching the term detail.

Now ask the students what details are and how they are used. Various answers may be forthcoming and the teacher may summarise appropriate ones on the blackboard. When a student gives an inappropriate answer, he should be complimented for trying but his answer not recorded. By this time the students should have a good idea that a detail is a smaller part of something larger (e.g., the details of a person's face are: eyes, nose, mouth, etc.). The teacher may end this part of the discussion by posing the question, "What are the details of a tape recorder so that we know it is not a radio?" A list of the differentiating details may be made.

The Lesson

The teacher may print the words "listening for details" on the chalkboard and ask students to find the term on their duplicated sheet for listening. Ask them to write or print the term in large letters at the top of page one of their listening notebook. Ensure that the printed words "listening for details" are prominently displayed all through the lesson.

Tell the students that you are going to read three stories to them; one is short but the other two are longer and more complicated. The students will be required to remember the more important details of each story. Tell them that they will receive help on the first two stories but not on the third one. In the first two the students will be told

certain details to look for; this will not be done for the third story. By the time the third story is read, students will be expected to have a good idea as to what to listen for relative to details.

Say, "First, I am going to read you a short and simple story. It is called 'Did You Ever Dream?' You should have no trouble to recall the different dreams in this story. There are four dreams and I will ask you to name them after the story is read."

After reading the story orally, the teacher will ask students to name the four different dreams. There should be little trouble in naming them.

Now tell the students to listen carefully because you are going to read them a longer, more complicated story and you are going to ask them many details about it afterwards. Tell them that the story is entitled "Tower to the Moon", a story about a foolish king who wanted an equally foolish thing done. Give them certain details to listen for and check to see if the questions based on these were answered more often correctly than questions on which no advance information was given.

Ask the students to listen for the following details:

1. where the king sat instead of on his throne;
2. what the king wanted most of all;
3. what the king meant when he said, "This is my command."

4. what the carpenter said he needed in order to finish the job;
5. how small the king looked when he reached the top of the tower;
6. what word the carpenter always used when he addressed the king.

The teacher may now read orally the selection "Tower to the Moon".

After the reading of the story, the teacher may weave questions such as those following into a discussion of the story. It is not necessary that the questions be asked in a test-like manner.

1. Where did the king sit instead of on his throne?
2. What did the king look at while he was sitting there?
3. What did the king want to do most of all?
4. What did he ask the best carpenter to build for him?
5. When the king said, "This is my command." What did it mean?
6. When the carpenter and his helpers produced nothing, how many days did the king give him in which to complete the job?
7. What did the carpenter say was needed in order to complete the task?
8. Who thought that someone else should climb the tower before the king did?

9. When the king reached the top of the tower, how big did he look?
10. What word did the carpenter always use when he spoke to the king?
11. What did the king ask to be done so that he could reach the last few inches to the moon?
12. What happened when the carpenter did what the king asked him to do?

Evaluation

The teacher may now proceed to the third story and tell the students that this time they will not be given any advance information as to what to look for in the story. This time they are to listen for details of the story on their own, as by now they should have a better idea as to what to listen for.

The teacher may now read the story "Newsboy Makes the News", which is about newsboy Tim Tucker, who won the Newsboy of the Year Award. Questions such as those following may be asked.

1. What is the name of Tim's friend?
2. Who told Tim that no paper had been received?
3. What special event for newsboys was being held on that day?
4. What was the name of the building where Tim went to get another paper?
5. Who was it that told newsboys never to argue with a customer?

6. Who had an accident in the story?
7. Tim arrived at the party just in time for what?
8. Who called Tim to the platform when he arrived at the picnic?
9. Name one prize Tim received for being newsboy of the year. .
10. Who told Mr. Carter about how Tim helped save Mrs. Sim's life?

Follow-up

Ask students to name some situations when it is important to listen for details. Various answers may be given (i.e., what it is like at the scene of an accident; a description of a missing person; a description of the seashore to someone who has never seen it, etc.).

Divide the students into three groups, making sure that there is at least one person in each group who can write reasonably well. Have one group describe the scene at a car accident; another to make a detailed description of a missing person; the other, to describe a scene at the seashore on a stormy day. The topics will depend on what has been suggested by the students. Each member of each group will contribute to the description, with one person designated in each group to keep a written record of what has been said. After this is done, the other members of the groups may write or print all or part of what has been said by copying from the designated writer. A time limit

of ten or fifteen minutes may be set for this part of the exercise. One person from each group may then read the finished product, after which the teacher looks at each book giving praise where possible, if only for effort in certain cases. There is no place for derogatory remarks at all, especially personal ones.

Ask students to listen to television or radio news and try to remember the details of it for the next day in school. Ask them to look for and try to remember details about their neighborhood; on the bus; at a ball game, etc. Ask them to make a habit of noting and remembering details. It is important to note that most students will continue to do these tasks only so long as the teacher keeps reminding them to do so. In most cases the students will be as enthusiastic or as bored as the teacher is. When the teacher stops caring, so do the students.

Listening Objective 2: To Carry Out Instructions

This section will help students to listen for the purpose of carrying out instructions. There will also be an evaluation to determine how well students have been able to meet the requirements of this objective.

Materials

The New Open Highways. Level 5, Discovering Treasure.
"A Simple Telescope," pp. 166-167.

The New Open Highways. Level 7, Blasting Off.
"How to Make a Terrarium," pp. 202-205.

The New Open Highways. Level 4, Seeking Adventure.
"A Magic Show for Your Friends," pp. 346-351.

Readiness

Print the objective "Listening to Carry Out Instructions" on the chalkboard. Ask students to find the phrase on their duplicated sheets and then write or print it on the top of page three in their listening notebook. The teacher should point out each word slowly saying it as he does so. Ask students to read along with the teacher in unison, and then ask individual students to read the whole phrase as well as individual words within it. Ask the students to refer to their objectives sheet and have them read the first objective as well as the second. Help students to review the first objective, and when the teacher is satisfied with students' performance on that one, he may proceed to objective two.

Now, say to the students, "I want you to listen carefully as I am going to give you some instructions; see if you can carry them out correctly. John, go over and close the window; Susan, erase the side chalkboard; Kim, close the door, etc." These exercises may be done separately at first, but after a few trials, instructions may be given in groups of five or more, with no action being taken on them until all instructions have been given.

Have the students sit in either a straight line or a circle. Whisper an instruction to the first person, who whispers it to the next and so on, to the end of the line. The last person says the words of the instruction aloud. The final version often bears little or no resemblance to the

original instruction. Make sure that all students get a chance to be first and last.

Ask students to carry out multiple instructions starting with two (e.g., "George, close the door and bring me that book on Linda's desk"). If George does these two things correctly, then another task is added, and then another until finally George can no longer complete the assignment. The same procedure is followed with all members of the class.

Make sure that students know that an instruction is not just an order or command. Most of them have seen and perhaps used instructions to assemble model cars, boats or planes. Most have seen someone in their families use recipes. Make them aware that these are the kind of instructions we will mainly be concerned with.

Ask students why it is important to listen carefully to directions. Various answers may be forthcoming, such as: directions given before a fire drill; instructions as to how to give first aid to an injured person; how to behave in a small boat, etc.

The Lesson

The teacher may say, "I am going to read three stories and I want you to listen carefully, because this time you are going to use the directions to make a telescope, a terrarium and also put on a magic show".

The teacher may now tell students certain points to listen for in the first selection "A Simple Telescope."

Students are told to listen for what materials are needed, in what quantities, shapes and sizes, and also how the assembly is to be done. They are also to listen for a warning because they are actually going to make the telescope.

After reading the selection orally, the teacher may ask the following questions.

1. How many pieces of cardboard are needed?
2. About how long should each piece of cardboard be?
3. What shape should the cardboard be made into?
4. How many lenses are needed?
5. What size and shape should each lens be?
6. There is one more piece of material to be used.
What is it?
7. Why is that material needed since it is not part of the telescope?
8. How can this simple telescope be focused?
9. What warning is given and why?

The actual making of the telescope will take place after all three stories in this section are done.

Students should do well on the above questions as they were given advance information as to what to be listening for.

The teacher may now prepare the students for the next selection, "How to Make a Terrarium". This time, however, advance information will be given on about half the things to be listened for.

1. What kind of container is easiest to work with when making a terrarium?
2. What materials may make up the bottom layer of the terrarium?
3. What material will be put over the bottom layer?
4. What plants usually do well in a terrarium?
5. What kind of light should the terrarium be kept in?
6. Why should you put a cover over a terrarium?
7. How do you regulate the water in a terrarium so that you get the right amount?

Now that the students have been given a certain amount of advance information as to what to be listening for, read the story and ask questions such as those following:

1. What is a terrarium?
2. What kind of container is easiest to work with when making a terrarium?
3. What materials may make up the bottom layer of the terrarium?
4. Why is a bottom layer like this necessary?
5. What material will be put over this bottom layer?
6. How is it recommended to shape this bottom layer?
7. What plants usually do well in a terrarium?
8. How should a plant be removed from the container

it was bought in?

9. Why is it necessary to be so careful when removing a plant from a container?
10. What kind of container is best for watering the soil?
11. What kind of light should the terrarium be kept in?
12. How do you regulate the water in a terrarium so that you get the right amount?
13. How can you tell if there is too much water in a terrarium?
14. After the right amount is found, and a cover is placed over the terrarium, what else may be added if you want?

The teacher may tell the students that after the next selection they can start making the telescope and the terrarium. There is one more set of instructions to be considered yet.

Evaluation

The teacher may say, "Now, I'm going to read you the story 'A Magic Show for your Friends', but this time I am not going to give you any advance information as to what to be listening for. There are four magic tricks; you will be questioned on all four. Listen carefully."

After reading the story orally, the teacher may ask questions such as those following:

The Bouncing Handkerchief

1. What do you do with the handkerchief before the show begins?
2. In which pocket do you put the handkerchief?
3. What do you say as you take the handkerchief from your pocket?
4. How do you act as you bounce and catch the handkerchief and then put it back in your pocket?
5. What made the handkerchief bounce?

Rubbing a Quarter Away

1. In which hand do you take the quarter first?
2. Where do you put your other hand?
3. What do you do with the quarter after you rub it over your elbow four or five times?
4. With what hand do you pick up the quarter?
5. After picking it up in that hand, what do you do with the quarter then?
6. After dropping the quarter again, what do you do with it now that was different from what you did before?
7. The quarter has now disappeared; what happened to it?

The Broken Toothpick

1. What do you put inside the hem of the handkerchief

- outcome of before the show starts?
2. In addition to the handkerchief, what do you show to the audience?
 3. What do you do with another toothpick?
 4. What do you ask someone else to do as part of the trick?
 5. What do you do then?
 6. How come the toothpick isn't broken?
- display in the classroom for a week or more. This will enable

Famous Names

1. How many small, blank cards do you need for this trick?
2. What other materials do you need for this trick?
3. What do you ask someone in the audience to do?
4. What do you do when someone has said a famous name?
5. After this is done, what do you ask a person from the audience to do?
6. How were you able to get the same name as the

Caution

one said by a person from the audience?

Follow-up

After checking the answers, ask the class to divide into three groups: one to make the telescope; another to make the terrarium; the other, to put on a magic show. Tell them that this will really test their ability to follow directions. Unless the directions are followed carefully the

Listening Objective 3: to Compare and Contrast

This section will help students see how the lives of people in stories are like, or different from, their own lives. There will also be an evaluation to determine how well they have been able to listen for these points of comparisons and contrasts.

Materials

SRA Lab IIA. Power Builder, Orange 8. "Come to our Potlatch."

Reader's Digest. New Skill Builders, Level 2 or Part 3. "My Indian Neighbors", pp. 61-66.

The New Open Highways. Level 7, Blasting Off.

"Ghost of the Lagoon", pp. 279-291.

Readiness

Print the phrase "Listening to Compare and Contrast" in large letters on the chalkboard and ask students to read from the students that people live differently because of them. If some students can't read the phrase, the teacher should read through it slowly and clearly. Then he should ask students to read along in unison with him. After that, individual students may be asked to read both the whole phrase as well as separate words within it. It is also wise at this time to review the past two listening objectives. Students may be referred to their duplicated sheets for this purpose. The teacher should stay with this review until he is sure that students have not forgotten the major points of the former objectives.

outcome of each project will be different than the outcome noted in the previous passages.

The materials for these projects should not be difficult to acquire. Ask the students to get as many as they can; the teacher should have little trouble in getting the rest.

The teacher will need to work closely with each group, and after the projects are finished they should be kept on display in the classroom for a week or more. This will enable students from the rest of the school to see what students in this class have done. The magic show could be done in an assembly of the full school if the students involved are willing to do so.

These foregoing activities are concrete and should prove to be tremendously motivating for the students. The results of what they have accomplished are readily apparent, and with this success the door to further achievement has been opened, if only slightly.

Caution

Ensure that a clearly marked sign is placed near the telescope, which reads "Do not look at the sun. You might seriously damage your eyes, perhaps even become blind." This caution is absolutely necessary because a real danger does exist as stated above.

Ask students if they know any person or group of people who live differently than they do. Many answers may be given, perhaps of local differences, such as religious, different sections of the community, or differences with neighboring towns, etc.

Ask students if they know any people who live completely different from how they live themselves. Ask them about people from other countries such as the hot lands around the equator or the cold lands of the far north. A map or large globe should be displayed at all times for reference when needed. Most students will have some idea of people with different lives than their own. A question such as "Would these people still live the same if they lived in this town where we are?" might be posed to focus their understanding of this concept. The teacher should try to draw from the students that people live differently because of climatic conditions, geographic locations, access to other people, etc., and that if we lived where they did, our lives would be much the same as theirs, because of the same overall governing conditions.

The Lesson

Say to the students, "I am going to read you three stories about people who live differently than we do. I want you to be listening for ways these people are both alike and different from us. In the first one, I am going to tell you

most of the things to be listening for; in the second, some of the things; and in the last one, you will be on your own completely. The first one is called 'Come to our Potlatch' or party." The students are to listen for the following things:

1. What does the word potlatch mean?
2. At what time does the Indian family decide to give a potlatch?
3. What were the other Indian families given to do when they first arrived?
4. What did they do when the house was built?
5. Who received the gifts?
6. What did the Indian family gain by giving a potlatch?
7. Do we have any custom similar to a potlatch?
8. Is a party in our culture given for the same reason as a potlatch in the Indian culture?
9. Who receives the gifts at a party in our culture?
10. Do we gain the same thing from a party that an Indian family gains from a potlatch?

After the story has been read aloud, the points that were given to be listened for may all be turned into questions. The answers should bring out the similarities and differences between the Indian culture in the story, and our way of life. Some similarities are: we, too, give parties, and enjoying ourselves and gift giving is part of them; we,

too, enjoy the company of others and in certain respects depend on them. Our dependence, however, is based on a monetary system by which we procure the necessary goods and services. The differences are that the Indians give the potlatch when they have gathered enough gifts to give every person who will attend. The persons giving the potlatch are the ones who give the gifts, whereas in our society the people who give the party are the ones who receive the gifts. The Indians attending the potlatch all helped to build a house for the host Indians; this is not an ordinary present custom in our society, although there are many ways we do help one another. The host Indians gained a house as well as the assurance of presents later, because every Indian who received a present would give one back to that family at a later date. In our society, the persons giving a party would help cement better relations with others, but the actual gift giving would begin and end with the party. For the Indian family, the potlatch meant becoming established in life; in our society parties are held for special occasions and ordinarily do not have the long range effects that the Indian potlatch does.

The teacher may prepare the class for the second story in this objective, "My Indian Neighbors", which is about the raising of children in one of the Sioux Indian Tribes. Ask them to be listening for the following points, but be sure to inform them that they will be questioned on more points

than will be given at this time:

1. what the Indian mother did when her baby cried?
2. what a mother in our society usually does when her baby cries;
3. what Indian parents do when their baby crawls towards a fire;
4. what Indians never do to their children even when they do something wrong;
5. what the Indians believe about all creatures;
6. what three things the Indian boy feels as he grows up?

After reading the story "My Indian Neighbors" the following questions may be asked:

1. What did the Indian mother do when her baby cried?
2. For what two reasons did she do this?
3. What does a mother in our society usually do when her baby cries?
4. What do Indian parents do when their child crawls towards a fire?
5. What would parents in our society do under the same circumstances?
6. When is an Indian child usually made to learn to swim?
7. Is that the same in our society?
8. What is it that Indian parents never do to their

children even when they do wrong?

9. Does this ever happen in our society when a child does something wrong?
10. What do the Indians in this story believe about all creatures?
11. Is this belief the same in our society?
12. What three important feelings does the Indian boy acquire as he grows older?
13. Are these feelings normally acquired by a child growing up in our society?

The answers to the above questions will bring out the fact that child rearing in this tribe of Indians is very different from child rearing in our society. The Indian mother places her hand over her baby's mouth so that he cannot cry; in our society babies are usually picked up and cuddled so that the crying will stop. The Indian baby is allowed to crawl to a fire so that he may learn to avoid it; our children are kept away from fire. Indian children learn to swim before they can walk; this also happens at times in our society although it is not a common occurrence. The Indians think of all creatures as their brothers; as a general rule we have a more inflated idea of our own importance as compared to the animals. Indians do not believe in spanking their children; this does often happen in our society. As the Indian boy grows older he feels free, happy and important; this is not always the case in our society. The lesson brings out very

well the fact that we may learn many good things from the Indians.

Evaluation

The next story "Ghost of the Lagoon", may be read, simply informing the students it is about a boy who lived on an island in the South Pacific Ocean, and that he did a very brave deed. They are to listen for things that are both alike and different from our way of life. By this time they should have the ability to listen for similarities and differences to compare and contrast.

After reading the story orally the teacher may weave questions, such as those following, into a discussion of the points in that society which compare or contrast with our way of life.

1. The boy's name is Mako, the Island is Bora Bora, the dog is Afa, the shark is Tupa; are these names common in our society? Does this lead you to think that their language is different from ours? Why or why not?
2. In what part of the world is the Island of Bora Bora? In what part of the world do we live? What does this tell us about the climate of each place? Would it be the same? Different? Why?
3. Mako owned an outrigger canoe. How many children do you know who own an outrigger canoe? How many

children do you know who own a boat of any kind?

The What is Mako's chief form of transportation?

board, one What is our chief form of transportation?

sub-head 4. Mako owned a dog. Is it common in our society to own a dog? Does this make the two societies alike?

5. Who often told Mako stories? Does this happen in our society as well?

6. What did Mako's grandfather refer to the shark as? Would that be done here? Why or why not?

7. Mako was sent on an errand to get food. Have you ever been sent to get food? Does this mean our societies are the same? Why or why not?

8. Mako went by water to get food, and the food he got was right from the trees; is this a common way to get food here? Does this make our two societies different? Why or why not?

9. How did Mako feel when he first saw the shark? How would you have felt had you been there?

10. What happened so that Mako lost his fear of the shark? Do you think the same thing would have happened to you? Why or why not?

11. After killing the shark Mako became a hero. Do you think that you would be regarded as a hero if you killed a shark? Why or why not?

12. Would you say their society is more alike or

more different from ours? Explain.

The teacher may put two main columns on the chalk-board, one for similarities, one for differences. Various sub-headings may be provided such as climate, foods, transportations, etc. to elicit responses based on their ability to listen for comparing and contrasting details.

The students may be asked to write these points of comparisons and contrasts in their listening notebook under the appropriate objective. Have them also write down sub-headings of other points that could be compared or contrasted.

Follow-up

Often there are fairs where products from all over the world are sold. Make an effort to find out about them and bring the children to them. These fairs are often sponsored by charitable organizations such as UNICEF or Oxfam. A phone call to these organizations would not only tell when and where the fairs are, but would also ensure that a person could be available to tell the students about the products and the countries from which they came, as well as answer any questions that may arise.

Ask students to listen to radio or television news to find out what is happening in at least one country other than Canada. Have them write down in their books what is going on there. If some cannot write well enough to do this, then have them try to remember it until next day and the teacher or

other students will help them write it in their books.

The teacher may ask a person from another country to come into the classroom and chat with the students. It may be best to take one country, rather than several, and have them listen for the major things about that country. An affective rather than a cognitive objective to come out of this section, is that people live as their physical surroundings dictate, ourselves as well as others; and knowing this can make a great deal of difference in students' attitudes towards people from other countries.

Listening Objective 4: Main Idea or Ideas

This section will help students to select the main idea or ideas from what is being said or read. It will also include an evaluation to determine how well students have mastered the requirements of this objective.

Materials

SRA Lab IIa. Rate Builder, Olive 4

SRA Lab IIa. Rate Builder, Blue 8

SRA Lab IIa. Rate Builder, Green 2

SRA Lab IIa. Power Builder, Brown 1, "New Living Ahead"

The New Open Highways. Level 5, Discovering Treasure.

"Pirates of Yesterday", pp. 45-47.

Readiness

A joke is always a good way to stimulate interest and perhaps make a point at the same time. Ex-President Herbert Hoover of the United States came home from church one Sunday and his wife asked him what the sermon was about. "Sin", said Mr. Hoover. "What did the minister say about it?" asked his wife. "Oh, he was against it", was the terse reply.

The above anecdote illustrates very well what the main idea of the sermon was, and how the minister felt about the subject of his address.

Print the phrase "Listening for Main Idea or Ideas", on the chalkboard in large letters. Ask students to read the phrase. If students cannot do so, to the teacher's satisfaction, he should point out each word slowly, saying it as he does so. He should stay with this section of the exercise until all students can read the phrase reasonably well. Ask students to find this objective on their duplicated sheet for listening. A short review of past objectives is also a good idea at this time.

Ask students what instructions they were given before they came to school this morning. Can they remember them all? Was there any one thing said to them that was more important than others. If so, explain to them that this was a main idea; it is one to remember.

Ask them what television programs they watched last

night in terms of what each one was about. Ask students to sum up what each program was about in one sentence. If they cannot do this, ask them to tell you the general idea of the program and you can sum it up in one sentence. Give them enough examples so that they can see that a main idea is what a paragraph or story is all about.

Ask them who has noticed newspaper headlines. More than likely they all have. Tell them that the headline is the main idea of the following article.

Perhaps there may be more than one idea. For example, in stories or other longer written works, there is a main idea which sums up the entire selection, and there may be a main idea for each paragraph. In case the word "paragraph" is not familiar to some students, show them by using a story from a book. Also remind them that one paragraph is about one main idea, and when another idea is to be presented, that's when a new paragraph is started.

Ask students what they would listen for most when the principal comes on the P.A. system before a fire drill. Most will recognize that the most important point is which way they should go to get out of the building. They should know by this time what a main idea is.

The Lesson

The teacher may tell students that he is going to read a certain number of selections, and at first, he will help them to find the main idea or ideas. Later they will

be expected to do this on their own. The first three selections are short and were selected because the main idea is obvious in each one.

The first selection is from SRA Lab IIa, Rate Builder, Olive 4. It is short and the main idea is easily seen. Tell the students that the main idea is something about the colour yellow. Having read the selection aloud, the teacher should ask students what they think the main idea is. If they can recognize it, that is good; if not, the teacher may help them to see that the paragraph is mainly about yellow being a safe colour to wear because it is the colour most easily seen.

The next selection is also short with an obvious main idea. It is from SRA Lab IIa, Rate Builder, Blue 8. Tell the students that this selection is about wind, and they are to try to listen for how this paragraph treats wind. Having read the selection to them, the teacher should check to see if any student has been able to come up with the main idea (e.g., that wind is useful to us).

By this time, students should have some understanding that a main idea is the summing up in a few words what a paragraph or some longer selection is all about.

The next example is short but the main idea is not immediately obvious. It is from SRA Lab IIa, Rate Builder, Green 2. Ask students to try to come up with the main idea on their own.

After reading the selection aloud, the teacher may ask if any students were able to hear with the main idea of the paragraph was (e.g., that every train conductor has a different shaped punch mark, which enables railroad men to identify the conductor who issued any ticket).

The next selection is a longer one with eight paragraphs. Ask students to listen as you read the whole selection through, and then you will read it paragraph by paragraph. They are to try to find the main idea of each paragraph as well as the main idea of the whole selection. Give them some hint as to the main idea of every odd numbered paragraph, and compare how correctly they found the main idea in these as opposed to the even numbered ones for which no hints were given.

Tell them that the first paragraph is about a new thing that happened in 1957; the third, something about the satellite's orbit; the fifth, what a satellite may do; and the seventh, about satellites and television.

The teacher may now read the selection twice, the first time straight through without stopping, and then reading it paragraph by paragraph.

The main ideas of the paragraphs are:

1. The first satellite was launched in 1957.
2. Why the satellite does not fall back to earth or fly away into outer space.
3. The speed and distance from the earth of the

satellite.

4. Many satellites are in orbit around the earth now.
5. Satellites can forecast weather.
6. Satellites can tell us about rays from the sun.
7. Satellites can transmit television waves worldwide.
8. Satellites tell us about outer space, which is necessary before space travel can begin.

The overall main idea can be summed up by the title, "New Living Ahead", or more broadly, "satellites and their effect on us now, with projections for the future."

Evaluation

The teacher may now tell the students that he is going to read another longer selection, but that this time there will be no advanced organizers as clues of or for the main idea of each paragraph. The story is entitled "Pirates of Yesterday".

The teacher should read the story twice. The first reading should be straight through, and the other paragraph by paragraph. The main idea of each paragraph is:

1. Who Blackbeard the Pirate was and what he looked like.
2. Blackbeard preyed on the American Colonies.
3. James Maynard was ordered to capture Blackbeard.

4. The fight was between Maynard's men and the pirates.
5. Blackbeard was killed.
6. Blackbeard's treasure has never been found.
7. Pirate Jean LaFitte helped the Americans to win the Battle of New Orleans.
8. The president pardoned LaFitte for his past crimes.
9. After trying to live honestly, LaFitte returned to a life of piracy again.
10. The United States Navy ordered LaFitte to leave. He did so and was never seen again.
11. His treasure, like Blackbeard's, has never been found.

The overall idea of the selection is the title, "Pirates of Yesterday", or "pirates in early American history." Students will be required to write down what they think the main idea is of each paragraph and of the whole selection.

Follow-up

Ask students to tell stories of things that have happened to them, while the others try to pick out the main idea or ideas.

The teacher may take a number of newspaper articles and read them to the class without giving them a title. At first, give them three possible main ideas, asking students

to pick the most appropriate one in each case. After two or three trial runs, simply read the article and ask students to name the main idea.

Although most students will have grasped the concept of main idea by this time, it is still possible that one or two students may not have. In these cases, similar exercises to those already given will need to be done, until such time as the teacher is satisfied with the performance of all students in this area.

Listening Objective 5: Summarizing Information

This section will teach students to make a written or oral summary of information heard, with an evaluation to determine how well they have achieved this objective.

Materials

SRA Lab IIa. Power Builder, Orange 1. "Large Animals of Long Ago."

SRA Lab IIa. Power Builder, Olive 1. "William Tell."

Reader's Digest, New Reading Skill Builder.
Level 2, part 1. "Never Go Down Alone", pp. 25-28.

The New Open Highways. Level 7, Blasting Off.
"Frightened Town", pp. 111-116.

Readiness

Print the phrase "Listening to Summarize Information" in large letters on the chalkboard. Ask students to read the words. For those who cannot read the complete phrase, the

teacher may point out each word, saying it slowly and clearly as he does so. Insofar as it is possible, ensure that all students can read the phrase meaningfully. Ask students to find this phrase on their duplicated sheet for listening. Ask them to write it on the appropriate page of their listening notebook.

Ask students to refer to their duplicated sheet for listening, and conduct a short review of past objectives. Unless the teacher does periodic reviews of past work, much of the material covered will be forgotten by the students. By constantly reviewing, the teacher is indirectly telling the students that all school work is important and not only that which is being done at the present time.

Ask students if they know what is meant by summarizing. The teacher may need to help them see that a summary is a shortened version of a story or some other written or spoken selection in which the main ideas are kept but many of the minor details are omitted. As an example, the story "Pirates of Yesterday" from the previous selection may be used. This is a good story to use because it not only reviews past work, but it also shows that a given selection may be used for more than one purpose. Also, it allows the teacher to go right to the summary without having to go through a whole new story first.

Take the first part of the story "The Terrible Blackbeard", and ask students what they remember about it.

When the teacher is reasonably satisfied that they remember the story, he may say, "Blackbeard was a pirate in the early days of the United States. His real name was Edward Teach, but because of his long black beard, he became known as Blackbeard. He terrorized the American colonies until the Governor of Virginia sent Lieutenant James Maynard to capture the pirate. After a fierce fight, Blackbeard was killed. Although the menace of Blackbeard was over, his treasure has never been found."

From this example students should be able to see that a summary is a review of the main ideas of a selection and that it is necessary to know how to find the main idea or ideas, as taught in the previous section.

The Lesson

The teacher may tell the students that he is going to read four selections, and he will give them decreasing amounts of help on the first three; on the last one they should know enough about summaries to do one completely on their own.

Tell students that the first story is entitled "Large Animals of Long Ago", and they are to listen for the following main points around which the summary will be built:

1. The size of the animals of long ago.
2. What one of these animals ate and why it lived all its life in water.

3. What some land animals eat.
4. The water animals' protection against the land animals.
5. How fast these animals could move.

After the story has been read aloud by the teacher, a summary may be built around the above main points. The teacher may say, "These animals of long ago were much bigger than elephants. One kind ate only water plants and spent all its life in water because the joints of its legs were weak. The large land animals ate meat and would have killed the water animals, but the land animals could not go into deep water. These animals were so heavy and with such long tails that they could only move very slowly."

The teacher may print the above summary on the chalk-board and ask students to write it on the appropriate page of their writing notebook. The more advanced students in the class may be asked to help the ones who are having difficulty with this task. The groups of two may be utilized for this purpose.

The teacher may now tell students to be ready for the next story, entitled "William Tell". In this trial, they will be given the main points in advance, but they are to try to construct the summary themselves. The groups of two may be used for this purpose as well.

The following main points may be given, around which the summary may be built:

1. In the opening scene, a man is attempting to shoot an apple from a boy's head.
2. The ruler of Switzerland placed a hat on a pole for everyone to bow down to.
3. What William Tell did when he saw the hat on the pole.
4. What the ruler of the country was afraid of.
5. What the ruler did to force William Tell to obey him.
6. What was William Tell's success with his task?

After the story has been read, the teacher may ask each group to use the main points given to try to make a summary of the story. The more advanced student in each group may write down the summary.

After the teacher has checked to see what each group has written down, he may recap the summary. "In Switzerland, William Tell is trying to shoot an apple from his son's head. The ruler of the country had put his hat on a pole and all the people had to bow down to it. William Tell stood in front of the pole and laughed. The king took William Tell's son, and set the task that William shoot an apple from his son's head with an arrow. William succeeded; the ruler didn't last long after this incident."

The next story is entitled "Never Go Down Alone". This time tell the students that you are going to give them about half the main points; they are to listen for the remaining main points as well as make the summary. The

groups of two may still be used. The following are some of the main points in the story:

1. Why skin divers dive.
2. Why diving in deep water is always dangerous.
3. What Pat did with his air tube.
4. What might have happened to Pat, had not James been with him.

After the students have finished, the teacher may check to see how accurate each group was in summarizing the story. If any doubt exists in the teacher's mind as to the students' ability to summarize, he may give the following summary:

"Skin divers dive for fish, shells, and fun; some divers do it for a living. James Baker is a diver who looks for sunken ships. He breathes through a tube from an air tank on his back. In deep water there is a danger that water pressure may make a diver feel wild and happy. One day this happened to his friend Pat, who took his air tube and tried to give it to a large fish. James helped him up immediately, otherwise he would have drowned. It is wise to follow the rule 'never go down alone'."

Evaluation

The next story is entitled "Frightened Town" and this time the teacher will read the story only. The students are asked to find the main points and make the summary on their

own. This time students will work individually and each one will be asked to give either a written or oral summary of the story. A reasonable summary may run as follows. "A boy, who bought a make-up kit for acting, used it to make himself up as a weird old man. In this disguise he prowled the streets of his small home town. He did this four times and the people became increasingly frightened. Finally, a group of frightened men and boys chased him, and he could have been killed had he been caught, which fortunately for him, he wasn't. The boy's father found the disguise, and after a serious talk between the father and son, the disguise was never used again."

Follow-up

Some students may still be unsure of how to do a summary; in these cases additional stories will be needed.

Ask students to cut out newspaper articles and bring them to class. A student who can read fairly well, or the teacher, may read the articles. The other students are asked to summarize them. Make sure that everyone gets a chance to be heard, trying to match the degree of difficulty of the article with the ability of the student.

Ask students what songs they know; then ask them to summarize them. Listen to a news broadcast on a school radio and ask for summaries of it. Ask them to give a summarized account of trips they have taken, or exciting or funny events

they have seen or have been involved in.

By this time most, if not all the students should know that a summary is a shortened version of a story or event and is built around the main points of the original. Actually, they have been using summaries all the time; this objective simply places it in a more formal setting.

Listening Objective 6: To Follow Sequence of Events

This section will help students to listen for sequence of events, with an evaluation to determine how well they have achieved this objective.

Materials

SRA Lab IIa. Rate Builder, Aqua 1.

SRA Lab IIa. Power Builder, Blue 5. "The Climb to the Atom Bomb."

Reader's Digest, New Reading Skill Builder, Level 4, Part 3. "The Snake in the Sleeping Bag," pp. 81-86.

The New Open Highways. Level 5, Discovering Treasurer. "How Light Came to the World," pp. 134-138.

Readiness

Print the phrase "Listening to Follow Sequence of Events" in large letters on the chalkboard, and ask students to read it. Even if some students are able to read the complete phrase, the teacher should still point to each word saying it slowly and clearly as he does so. He should then ask students to read the phrase, both as a group and

individually. He should make as sure as possible that all students can read the phrase meaningfully.

The teacher should ask students to find this phrase on their duplicated sheet for listening, and then have them write the phrase at the top of the appropriate page in their listening notebook. A short review of past objectives may also be done at this time, to ensure that no previous important concepts have been forgotten.

Students should be asked if they know the meaning of the phrase "Listening to Follow Sequence". Even if some students know the meaning of it, the teacher should still make sure that all members of the class know what it means.

Ask students to relate in order the things they did today. Tell them to talk about the things as they happened, putting first things first. Someone is likely to say, "I got up, washed, had breakfast, took the bus to school, played ball, came to class, etc." Ask for more examples of sequence from each student, making sure that all students understand the concept.

The Lesson

There are four selections to be utilized in this lesson, ranging from short to fairly long, and help will be given in decreasing amounts up to the last selection. In the last selection students are on their own to follow the sequence of events.

The first selection is from SRA Lab IIa, Rate Builder, Aqua 1. The teacher may read it aloud and this time be ready to help students all the way through with it. Even if certain students show that they can follow sequence, it is still wise for the teacher to go through the selection slowly, pointing out what came first, second, third, etc. For this rather short paragraph, the events in sequence may be put on the board and numbered. Students may write the events on the appropriate sheet of their listening exercise book. The points are:

1. Newsboy James Bozar was counting his day's paper money.
2. He found a split nickel.
3. He became angry thinking someone had cheated him.
4. He saw that the coin was hollow.
5. A strip of microfilm was inside, which he took out.
6. He took the microfilm to the police.
7. The police passed it on to the FBI.
8. The microfilm was the first lead in cracking an international spy ring.

The next selection, "The Climb to the Atom Bomb", is longer, and the teacher may help the students with more than half the events. The students are then asked to continue on their own. The events given may be as follows:

1. People were waiting for a test firing of an

atomic bomb.

2. When the bomb should have exploded, it didn't.
3. Although the atom bomb could explode at any time, three men were picked to go and dismantle it.
4. The three men started to climb the 500 foot tower.

Ask the students to come up with the rest of the events, in order, which are:

5. The three men reached the room where the atom bomb was.
6. The men worked on the bomb and finally pulled out the wires so that it would not explode.
7. The men climbed back down to the ground.

For the next story, "The Snake in the Sleeping Bag", every second event may be given with the students being asked to fill in the missing ones. After reading the story aloud, the teacher may give the odd numbered events, which are as follows:

1. The writer of the story had just finished breakfast.
3. The writer went to waken the still sleeping Al.
5. The writer saw a large lump in Al's sleeping bag.
7. The writer blamed himself for this predicament.
9. Al said "No", which meant not to shoot the snake.
11. The writer cut a hole in the sleeping bag.
13. The smoke didn't drive the snake out.

15. The snake finally crawled out of the sleeping bag.
17. The men chopped away the underbrush so that no other snakes would bother them.

Ask the students to name an event for every even number. They may run as follows:

2. The writer woke up the other men in the party.
4. Al whispered, "Snake", since a snake was in his sleeping bag.
6. The writer told the other men about the snake.
8. At first they were going to try to shoot the snake.
10. They lit a fire to try to smoke the snake out.
12. They funnelled the smoke inside the sleeping bag.
14. They removed the covering, so that the bag would warm up with the sun, thus forcing the snake out.
16. Al instantly went back to sleep.

Evaluation

The next story is entitled "How Light Came to the World". This time the students are told to listen for sequence of events on their own; no help will be given any more than that the story will be read to them.

After reading the story orally, the teacher may ask students to name the sequence of events. Students who can write well enough may answer in writing; the others may

respond orally in a one to one situation with the teacher.

The sequence of events in the story "How Light Came to the World" are as follows:

1. Long ago the Indians were hungry because there was no light in the world. No crops grew, no hunting could take place and no warmth existed.
2. The raven heard that the great Chief of the Skies kept the sun and stars hidden for himself.
3. The raven searched and found the castle of the Chief of the Skies but he was a stranger and could not enter. He waited by a pool.
4. When the Chief's daughter came to drink at the pool, the crow changed himself into a spruce needle, which the maiden drank with the water.
5. The maiden became pregnant, but the baby was really the crow.
6. As the child grew, he was allowed by the Chief to play with the sun and stars.
7. One night the little boy (the raven) stole the stars and gave them to the starving Indians.
8. The Chief tried to retrieve the stolen stars but he could not.
9. The little boy (the raven) cried that he wanted to play with the sun, and finally the Chief allowed him to play with it.

10. The boy changed himself into the raven and flew away with the sun.
11. The sun gave light and warmth to the world and the Indians were no longer hungry.
12. Since that time, the Indians have always honored and tended the raven.

If students do reasonably well on this task, the teacher may proceed to the follow-up exercises. If any students still seem in doubt as to the requirements of this objective, more exercises similar to those given, may be utilized until all students have grasped the idea of following sequence.

Follow-up

Ask students to watch a certain television program, and discuss it next day for sequence of events.

Ask them if they know other things in which sequence of events is involved. Many different responses may be given such as picking sides and playing a softball or baseball game; a school day, including the getting ready for and going home after; cooking a meal, etc.

Ask them to cut comics out of the daily papers in which sequence of events is involved. Ask them to look at their duplicated sheets and they will see a sequence of language arts skills, or events, they must try to work through.

Listening Objective 7: Determining Cause and Effect Relationships.

This section will help students to listen for cause and effect relationships, and evaluate to see how well this objective has been achieved.

Materials

SRA Lab IIa. Rate Builder, Blue 4.

SRA Lab IIa. Power Builder, Olive 3. "Blind Boy of Pompeii."

The New Open Highways. Level 4, Seeking Adventure. "A Dish You Can Eat", pp. 56-58.

Readiness

Print the phrase "Listening to Determine Cause and Effect Relationships" on the chalkboard. Ask students to read the phrase. The words "determine" and "cause and effect" and "relationship" are not likely to be understood. The teacher should point them out slowly, saying them clearly as he does so. The students may then be asked to read the phrase, and the teacher should stay with this part of the exercise until all students can read it meaningfully.

The students may be asked to find this phrase on their duplicated sheet for listening. Ask them to write it at the top of the appropriate sheet in their listening notebook. This is also a good time to conduct a short review of past listening objectives to ensure that no major concepts have been forgotten.

The teacher should ask students what they can say about cause and effect. For example, going out in the snow with not enough clothes on caused you to feel cold; the effect of feeling cold was that you went back inside and put more clothes on. More examples may be needed to help the students understand the concepts. The teacher may summarize the examples on the board, and the students should be asked to write them on the appropriate page of their listening notebook.

The teacher may take more examples using the following pattern. An event would have a cause and the event would have one or more effects (e.g., the fire was caused by faulty wiring and the effect of the fire was that a family was left homeless; or, the cause of the girl's failure was that she didn't study enough, and the effect of this failure was that she had to remain in the same grade for another year). If any member of the class had an injury, use it as an example of cause and effect. Ask them what the cause of the injury was, and then ask them what the effects of the injury are. The cause of a broken arm may have been slipping on ice; the effects may be many (e.g., not being able to play ball; not being able to write in school, etc.).

The Lesson

The teacher may tell students that three selections will be read orally for this objective, ranging from simple and short to longer and more involved. Help will be given on

the first two but not on the third. The first selection is from SRA Lab IIa, Rate action. Builder, Blue 4. After reading this story aloud, the teacher may ask what the event was that happened, what was its cause and what were some of the effects of it. Various answers may be given, but briefly, it amounts to this: the event was a bird falling from its nest; the cause was that the bird was too little to fly; the effect was that a boy took it home with him and fed it which in turn caused the bird to stay with the boy.

The next selection is entitled "Blind Boy of Pompeii", in which there is a major event as well as minor events, all with causes and effects. In this case, the students will be told the events, and instructed to listen for the cause and effect of each. The major event is the eruption of the volcano; the minor events are:

1. The dog smelled smoke.

Evaluation

2. Marc's waking up.

The teacher may now take the selection, "A Dish You Can Eat", and tell the students that this time the story

3. Marc's escape to safety.

The students may now be asked what the causes and effects of these events were.

If students can name the causes and effects, the teacher should still summarize them in terms of how the

causal relationship is determined. It would be a good idea to put these summaries on the board, with the event in the

middle, the cause coming before it, and the effect or effects coming after, with arrows showing the direction of the action.

For the major event, the eruption of the volcano, the cause is not explicitly stated, but the effect is that all the people are trying to escape from the city of Pompeii.

The minor event of the dog smelling smoke is caused by the smoke from the volcano drifting down over the city, and the effect is that the dog tries to rouse the sleeping, blind boy.

The next event, Marc's waking up, is caused by the dog poking at him with his nose, and the effect is that Marc now has a chance to escape the doomed city.

The last event, Marc's escape, is caused by the dog's leading him to a boat at the seashore, and the effect is that the boy will survive the destruction of the city of Pompeii which was wiped out during a volcanic eruption of Mount Vesuvius.

Evaluation

The teacher may now take the selection, "A Dish You Can Eat", and tell the students that this time the story will be read to them, but they are to find the events, the causes and effects of them without the aid of advanced organizers.

The story may now be read aloud and the students asked about the major event and any minor ones, as far as

causes and effects are concerned. The students should be given ample time to think about the story, and they may ask that parts of it, or even all of it, be read again. If this is the case, they should be obliged.

The major event is the invention of the ice cream cone. This was invented because people had to wait too long for dishes to be washed on which the ice cream was served. The effect of this was that ice cream was placed in a container which could be eaten and the dispensing of ice cream was speeded up considerably.

The first minor event was that Ernest Hamwi, a pastry maker, saw crowds of people waiting impatiently for ice cream. This was caused because it took too long to wash the dishes on which the ice cream was served. The effect was that Ernest Hamwi started thinking of how this situation might be remedied.

The second minor event was the putting of ice cream on the specially shaped pastry baked by Ernest Hamwi. This was caused by the last effect, Ernest's thinking about how to speed up the dispensing of ice cream. The effect of this was that people liked this new idea, and it has become a standard way of serving ice cream.

Follow-up

It is sometimes hard to separate causes from effects and in many cases an effect becomes a cause as in the example above.

One example given may be utilized again to illustrate this point (e.g., the fire was caused by faulty wiring and the effect was that some people were left homeless. They then acquired or rented another house to live in caused by the fact that they were left homeless).

Ask students to listen to a particular news broadcast on radio or television, and the next day be prepared to discuss some of the news items mentioned. Ask them to listen for news items which have a definite cause and lead to one or more effects. Many news items are possible in this (e.g., an accident on the highway caused by a drunken driver, the effect being two people killed and three more sent to hospital; the plight of the boat people in South-East Asia caused by strife in their own country, the effects being that many of them probably drowned and various countries agreeing to take in the survivors, etc.). Ask them to keep an account in their writing notebooks of news items with definite causes and effects. The groups of two may be utilized for this exercise. Set aside a few minutes each day for the next couple of weeks or more during which these news items may be brought up and discussed. This objective may also be tied in with their writing, in that they may be asked to write stories about themselves concerning events with definite causes and effects. The groups of two may be utilized for this exercise also.

If the teacher judges that one or more students still

have not grasped the idea of cause and effect when these lessons are finished, he should feel completely free to develop more exercises on his own. The important fact is to continue on with each objective until the teacher feels certain that all students have grasped the idea of whichever objective is being dealt with.

Listening Objective 8: Distinguishing Between Fact and Opinion

This section will teach students to listen for what is fact and what is opinion; and evaluate them to determine how well the requirements of this objective have been met.

Materials

SRA Lab IIa. Rate Builder, Olive 2.

SRA Lab IIa. Rate Builder, Green 12.

SRA Lab IIa. Rate Builder, Gold 5.

SRA Lab IIa. Rate Builder, Gold 10.

SRA Lab IIa. Power Builder, Green 8, "His Highness the Cat".

SRA Lab IIa. Power Builder, Purple 1, "In 2060".

The New Open Highways. Level 6, Exploring Afar, "Happy Election Day".

Readiness

Print the phrase "Listening to Separate Fact from Opinion" in large letters on the chalkboard, and ask students to read it. Even though some students may be able to read it, the teacher should still point out each word slowly,

saying it clearly as he does so. He should then ask students to read along with him, after which he may ask individual students to read the phrase. Students should be asked to find this phrase on their duplicated sheet for listening and then write it at the top of the appropriate page in their listening notebook. A quick review of past listening objectives may also be done at this time, to ensure that no major concepts have been forgotten.

Ask students if they know what a fact is. Most of them will have some idea that a fact is a statement that is true or real. The teacher may ask the students to respond orally with sentences that start with the words "it's a fact that . . ." (e.g., "It's a fact that water is wet", etc.). This exercise should be continued until the teacher is satisfied that all students know what a fact is. If any student has responded with an opinion, it should be named as such, and the teacher may explain why it is not a fact.

Ask students what an opinion is. Even if some students respond reasonably well, the teacher may still give or elicit examples of statements that are opinions. Some examples may be: "I think it will rain tomorrow; that movie I saw last night was terrific; rock music is the only music worth listening to". Enough examples from students and teacher will show the basic difference between a fact and an opinion. Students will soon come to see that a fact is true or real, whereas an opinion is simply what one person thinks

of a particular topic, and may be different from what other people think on the same topic.

Ask students where they are most likely to find facts and opinions. Various answers may be given, such as that facts are most likely found in newscasts, science books or encyclopaedias and that opinions are often found in political meetings, informal gatherings of friends, etc.

The teacher may divide the blackboard into two sections: one for "facts" and the other for "opinions". Ask students to give statements of both fact and opinion, explaining why each sentence is fact or opinion. If the student gives a fact and explains why it is a fact, the teacher may put it on the appropriate side of the chalkboard. If a student gives a fact or opinion, but cannot explain why it is so, the teacher will not write that particular one down, but rather help the student understand the reason behind his error. This exercise may be continued until the teacher feels reasonably sure that all students can distinguish between fact and opinion.

The Lesson

The teacher may now tell the students that there are several different selections in this lesson and they are to evaluate each as fact or opinion, or in some cases, both. They also have to pick out examples of fact or opinion or both from each selection. The teacher may help the students on the first four selections, gradually decreasing the amount

of help given on selections five and six; on the last selection they are to work independently to separate fact from opinion.

The first selection is about "flies" and is from SRA Lab IIa, Rate Builder, Olive 2.

After the teacher has read this selection orally to the class, students should have little difficulty in understanding that this selection is factual (e.g., flies can walk up walls and across ceilings; they do have six legs; the sticky pads on a fly's legs enable it to walk upside down or vertically).

The second selection is on "cartoons", from SRA Lab IIa, Rate Builder, Green 12. After the teacher has read this selection he may say, "Do you think this selection is factual, or do you think it is just one person's opinion?"

This selection has instances of both fact and opinion. If students do not recognize this, the teacher may point it out to them. It is a fact that jokes are meant to be funny, yet it is an opinion that all people can tell jokes that make people laugh. It is a fact that cartoons are meant to be funny or make a point, yet it is the opinion of each reader as to whether this is so or not. If students can learn from this selection that both fact and opinion can exist side by side in the same paragraph, then an important concept has been acquired.

The next selection is about an Eskimo boat, the kayak.

Ask students to listen to the following ideas and decide if each one is factual or opinion:

1. Eskimoes use a boat called a kayak.
2. The description of how kayaks are made.
3. Eskimoes use kayaks for hunting.
4. If a kayak turns over in the water it can be righted again.
5. Eskimoes learn to use kayaks when they are very young.
6. Kayaks are often used far out at sea.

After the teacher has read the selection on kayaks he may go back over the points asking if each one is true or someone's opinion. There is little doubt that the points are true, and so, in this case, the whole selection is true, since it is a description of events that have actually taken place.

The next selection is about the Puritans in early America. Ask the students to listen for the following points and decide if they are true or someone's opinion:

1. The Puritans were a stern people.
2. They thought it was sinful to have fun.
3. Their first Christmas in the new world was a bleak one.
4. Governor Bradford scolded some boys for playing ball at Christmas.
5. Laws were passed forbidding people to celebrate Christmas Day;

6. Town criers had to shout "no Christmas" as they made their rounds.

Having read this selection orally, the teacher may go back over the points that were given in advance, to see if the students can decide whether each is factual or opinion.

1. Generally the Puritans were a stern people, but there must have been exceptions under certain circumstances; an element of opinion exists in this one.
2. The Puritans thought it was sinful to have fun; again, there must have been exceptions to this rule, and so there is an element of opinion in this one as well.
3. Their first Christmas in the new world was a bleak one; this is factual.
4. Governor Bradford scolded some boys for playing ball on Christmas; this is factual.
- 5 and 6. These two are factual because they were real happenings.

The next selection is entitled, "His Highness, the Cat". Ask students to decide if the following points are facts or opinions but remind them that all points will not be given in advance. Part way through the selection they will be told to listen for other points on their own.

1. Almost 5,000 years ago cats began to live with

people.

2. A long time ago some people tried to get rid of their cats but it was very difficult to do.
3. On a South Sea island, cats were brought in to kill rats; the cats did this but they became such a nuisance themselves that the people had to leave the island.
4. Cats don't seem to care as much about people as do dogs.
5. A cat saved the life of a person in prison.

The students may be told that there are three more major points which they are to listen for on their own, and decide if they are facts or opinions.

Having read the story orally, the teacher may first go back over the points that were given previously to be listened for. All are true, with the possible exception of number four, which may hold an element of opinion.

The other major points are:

6. Farmers claim that cats save them money by killing mice and rats that eat their crops; this is true.
7. People in ancient Egypt believed that cats were gods. It is true that they believed this, but the opinion lies in the belief itself.
8. A war was won over the Egyptians because of

cats; this is true.

"In 2060", a selection about what life may be like in the future, all the points are opinions, because many events may happen which can stop or change the events as they are foreseen in this article. Students should have little difficulty in seeing this.

Evaluation

The final selection, "Happy Election Day", contains both fact and opinion. The teacher may tell the students that the story will be read to them, but they are to select as many events as they can and decide if they are fact or opinion.

Having read the story orally the teacher may ask students to name the events and tell whether they are fact or opinion. Some of the major events are as follows:

1. The number of students in the class is factual.
2. The offices held by different students is factual.
3. All the opinions given about other people are just that--opinions. There are instances of generalizations such as boys are better, some girls voted for Bruce Hubbard because he is Julie Hubbard's cousin, etc.
4. The nominations, voting and persons elected are factual.

5. That they all stayed friends afterward is too much to hope for, and so, is an opinion.

Follow-up

Ask students to bring newspapers to school and certain items may be read by the teacher or students who can read fairly well. Divide the chalkboard in half in order to put factual items on one side and opinions on the other. The students are asked to decide which items are fact and which are opinion. This exercise should be continued until the teacher feels reasonably satisfied that all students can judge between facts and opinions.

Listening Objective 9: Making Inferences

This section will help students to make inferences about the implied traits of characters with an evaluation to determine how well students have met the requirements of this objective.

Materials

SRA Lab IIa. Rate Builder, Blue 5.

SRA Lab IIa. Power Builder, Olive 10, "Ben and the Rule".

SRA Lab IIa. Power Builder, Blue 1, "Davy Crockett".

The New Open Highways. Level 7, Blasting Off, "Escape by Sea", pp. 302-312.

Readiness

Print the phrase "Listening to Make Inferences" in large letters on the chalkboard and ask students to read it. The word "inferences" may very likely give some trouble, so the teacher should point out each word in the phrase, saying it clearly as he does so. After that, students may be asked to read the whole phrase as well as each word separately, and begin to develop a working definition of the term. Ask them to find the phrase on their listening objective sheet and then copy it at the top of the appropriate sheet in their listening exercise book. A brief review of the basic concepts pertaining to each objective would be appropriate here.

Ask students how they know what a person is like (e.g., good, bad, helpful, cruel, etc.). If they say that someone else has told them about the person, then ask them how that person knew. Eventually it has to come down to the fact that you know what a person is like by his or her actions and communicated thoughts as well as what others say and feel about them. By their words and actions, you can infer what a person is like. As an example, in the previous section the story "Happy Election Day" was used. In that story Miss Coppersmith was a good teacher and yet it is not directly stated anywhere that this was so. We infer that she was a good teacher because there were a number of statements which tell something about her good teaching practices. Ask students to think back to the story and try to remember what

she said, or did, or what was said about her. Some of the references to her might be as follows:

1. She allowed the class to elect officers to help run the class.
2. She didn't try to stop the boys from using nicknames for one another.
3. She explained why the office of Sergeant at Arms was important and they would have to be careful whom they elected.
4. She explained how they might go about the campaign before the election.
5. She taught them to be fair so that when the election was over, they would all still be friends.
6. She was teaching her students about democratic living by doing some of the things that make up a democracy (e.g., campaigns and elections).

The teacher should try to draw from the students, reasons such as these given above. However, if they have difficulty in doing this, the teacher may show them the evidence which implies that Miss Coppersmith was a good teacher.

The Lesson

There are four selections to be read in this section, ranging from rather simple to fairly long and involved. The

first one, from SRA Lab IIa, Rate Builder, Blue 5, is being used as an example only.

The teacher may say, "This story is about Mr. Brown; listen to what is said about him so that you can get some idea as to what kind of a person he was."

After reading the story aloud, the teacher may ask students what Mr. Brown did which gives some idea of the kind of man he was. Students should have little trouble in seeing that when Mr. Brown saw a boy trying to reach a high door-bell, he went and rang it for the boy. Despite the fact that Mr. Brown was tricked by the boy, the idea still persists that Mr. Brown was a kindly man who tried to help people whenever he could.

Remind students that the story didn't say what kind of man Mr. Brown was, and one has to "infer" that he was kind as shown by his actions in the story.

The next selection, "Ben and the Rule", is about part of the education of young Benjamin Franklin.

Remind students that the story tells about the Franklin family being too poor for Ben to be able to attend school. It tells of Ben being smart and able to learn a great deal, but it does not say that Ben's father was a very smart man as far as the education of his children was concerned. It also does not say that the trapper was somewhat dense, yet we know that both the above facts are true because of what is said about them in the story.

After reading the story orally the teacher may ask about these same two points already mentioned. If students understand the main ideas, then that is fine. If they can't, the teacher may ask them what is said about Mr. Franklin, such as why he had the rule of not talking about food at meals. There may be various answers, but one major point is that mealtimes were the times when the children received their education. Mr. Franklin would ask people from various trades to his home for meals and they were asked to tell about the work they were engaged in. In this way the Franklin children learned many things they otherwise would not have known about, since the family was too poor to send the children to school. Because of "the rule" and the practice of inviting people to meals for the purpose of educating his children, we can infer that Mr. Franklin was a good parent and a smart man, and that being poor did not stop him from acquiring a broad education for his children.

The trapper was somewhat stupid, or perhaps very hungry, because although he was asked question after question about his work, all he kept talking about was the food. He didn't obey "the rule", which was to not talk about food during meals. Some discussion may be held as to whether the trapper was dense or merely hungry. It doesn't really matter as to whichever adjective the students use to describe the man, either one or both may be acceptable. They are still getting practice in inferring about character through context.

The next selection is entitled "Davy Crockett", and it is about his being a guide for Major Norton and his soldiers, and the encounter they had with a band of Indians. The students may be told that Davy Crockett is a very smart man regarding his knowledge of the country and the ways of the Indians. They can be asked to listen for reasons to support this contention. They can also be asked to listen for what is said about Major Norton, the commanding officer of the soldiers, and to conclude on their own the kind of person Mr. Norton was in actuality.

After listening to the story, the students may be asked first about what they heard which "inferred" that Davy Crockett was a smart man. Many answers may be forthcoming and the teacher might suggest to the students that they base their inferences on what is actually said in the story. Some acceptable inferences might be that Davy Crockett had no trouble in guiding the soldiers to find the Indians that were on the warpath; he advised the soldiers not to stay on the path through thick woods in the dark as they might meet the Indians; Davy and his friend first went to a high hill to see what the countryside looked like in case of battle with the Indians; and when the soldiers were ambushed by the Indians, Davy and his friend raced down from the hill, shooting their guns and shouting orders as if they had many troops with them.

Now ask what was said about Major Norton that could

be used to make an inference as to the kind of man he was. Some points about Major Norton were that he didn't try to get a picture of the countryside in case of battle with the Indians; he stayed on the path through the woods when it was becoming dark, even though he was advised against it by Davy Crockett; and he was just as surprised as were the Indians when only two men broke out of the woods, for he too thought the noise was made by a whole army. The students should be the ones to come up with these ideas, but if answers are not readily forthcoming, questions may be asked to lead students to a complete answer. For example, what did Major Norton do that Davy Crockett advised him not to do? What might have happened to Major Norton and his men, had not Davy Crockett and his friend Russell frightened the Indians off?

Different answers may result due to the questioning. Some of these possible answers may be as follows: 1. Major Norton was not too smart, in that he didn't think Davy Crockett knew what he was talking about and thus he didn't think that any real danger existed from the Indians; 2. He didn't learn the nature of the countryside in case of battle; 3. He didn't know the war tactics of the Indians. These answers point to the fact that Major Norton did not take the trouble to do what he should have done as a commanding officer. If it hadn't been for Davy and Russell, Major Norton's whole troop may have been totally wiped out by the

Indians. Perhaps he underestimated the intelligence of the Indians, or overestimated the strength of his troops. In either case he was not a good commanding officer.

Evaluation

The last selection is entitled "Escape by Sea", and is about a man who escaped from a prison that was thought to be escape proof. This time the students are asked to listen for the characters that are in the story and from hearing what is said about them, to infer something about each of the people.

After reading the story aloud, the teacher may ask about the most important character in the story. There should be little difficulty in knowing that it is Dantes. They may then be asked to form into their groups of two and write down what is said about Dantes that tells something about his character. Some acceptable inferences are as follows: 1. Dantes was sensitive and he was very sad when his friend died; 2. He was very intelligent, because he devised a way to escape from a supposedly escape proof prison; 3. He was brave, as he took the chance of being killed in the attempt to escape; 4. He was quick witted in that he thought of a way to get onboard the fishing boat, as well his explanation to the captain for his long hair and beard; 5. He was honest, as shown by his saying that a prisoner had escaped when the prison cannon was heard to

fire; 6. He was persuasive, since he persuaded the captain of the fishing boat to hire him on as a sailor even though there was suspicion that he (Dantes) was the escaped prisoner.

Inferences about the jailors may be made next. Possible acceptable inferences are as follows: 1. They are somewhat gross and ignorant, due mainly to the fact that they made jokes about the body they were throwing over the cliff into the sea; 2. They seemed to lack all feelings of sympathy for the body of the person they were throwing into the sea.

Ask students what other significant person or persons are left in the story. The captain, for reasons of his own, decided to hire Dantes on the boat as a sailor when it seemed obvious that Dantes was the escaped prisoner. No real reasons are given for this fact, but students may still be asked to develop inferences as to why they think the captain did this act. They may respond that he was afraid not to; that he really was persuaded by Dantes; that he saw a chance to get cheap labour; that he saw Dantes to be a good sailor, etc.

Follow-up

Ask students to watch or listen to television or radio news for the next two or three evenings, and select one person that is talked about in the news. They are asked to infer

what kind of a person he or she might be by what is said about him or her. The teacher should arrange that all students see or hear the same newscast, so that they all would have some idea about each person under discussion. The reasons for all inferences made should be given.

Ask students about other books or stories they have heard or read, and what inferences might be made about the characters in them, as well as the reasons for each inference made.

Ask students to watch a certain police or detective drama on television, and to come up with reasons as to why one person is considered good, another bad, another cruel, etc. Even when students don't read all that well, they can still make valid observations in a non-reading format when they know their answers will be treated with respect. It is often a matter of giving them a chance to speak out without fear of ridicule, that overcomes their fear of doing or saying things they otherwise would not. Thus, the follow-up, in addition to being an enrichment of the mastered cognitive skill, also reinforces an area of the affective domain, that being attitude development.

Listening Objective 10: Drawing Conclusions

This section will help students to draw conclusions based on characters and events, and evaluate them to determine how well the requirements of this objective have been met.

Materials

SRA Lab IIa. Rate Builder, Red 9.

SRA Lab IIa. Rate Builder, Tan 8.

SRA Lab IIa. Power Builder, Olive 12, "Tiger Shark".

Reader's Digest. New Reading Skill Builder, Level 4, part 3, "One Scary Night".

Readiness

The teacher should print the phrase "Listening to Draw Conclusions", on the chalkboard and ask students to read it. The word "conclusions" may give them some trouble. The teacher should say each word slowly, and then ask students to read the whole phrase and individual words within it. Ask certain students to read the other objectives from their duplicated listening sheet. Also review the concepts of past objectives to ensure retention of the basic ideas previously presented.

Ask students if they know what is meant by drawing a conclusion. Even if some students have some ideas as to what conclusions are, the teacher should still bring out clearly the meaning of the term "conclusion".

Refer to the last section in which we used a story about Davy Crockett. Ask students what would have happened to Major Norton and his soldiers had they not been rescued by Davy and his friend Russell. Ask them to draw their conclusion based on the kind of a man that Major Norton was and on the surprise attack on them by the Indians. Very

likely the answer will arise that all the soldiers would have been killed. Ask students what they based their conclusion on and try to draw out various answers. Some possible answers might be that Major Norton was not familiar with Indian war tactics, and the Indians had the soldiers where they wanted them. Given the person (Major Norton) and the event (an ambush by the Indians), it is quite possible that the whole troop would have been wiped out. This is a reasonable conclusion based on what is known about the person and the event.

The Lesson

Utilize SRA Lab IIa, Rate Builder, Red 9 as a preliminary attempt at drawing conclusions. Read to the students as far as the end of the first paragraph. Ask them to conclude what will happen when the boys think that putting smoke in a bag will cause the bag to rise. Regardless of what students say, they are getting practice in drawing conclusions from information given.

The next selection is from SRA Lab IIa, Rate Builder, Tan 8. The teacher may say, "Be listening for what you think the squirrels did when they were left in the woods, based on what you hear about the squirrels." The teacher may read as far as . . . "They took them to a woods five miles away and left them there." The students may now try to come up with different conclusions such as the squirrels died; they were

eaten by bigger wild animals; they were too tame and were killed by boys because they had no fear of people, etc. In the story the squirrels got back to the house even before the people did, but the important thing is that students are drawing possible conclusions about what they are hearing.

The next selection is SRA Lab IIa, Power Builder, Olive 8 and is entitled "Tiger Shark". Give information as to some, but not all, of the things to listen for. Tell them that a shark is seen while a diver is under water, and ask them what they conclude will happen now as a result of this fact. Then another man goes into the water, so ask them what they think will happen now. The shark is stabbed twice with a knife, and the students may be asked to conclude what will happen as a result of this action. The students are asked to be listening for the action leading up to each event and to try to draw conclusions as to what might happen in each case.

The teacher may take each event separately. First read as far as the end of paragraph four, in which a tiger shark is spotted near a diver in the water, and then ask the students what they think might happen next. No doubt there will be various answers, and after a few minutes of discussion, the teacher may go on to read what actually happened. The next event is the writer's uncle going down and carrying a knife with him, and the same procedure may be followed. Then the shark is stabbed with the knife, and again the teacher may

ask for the students' conclusions, following the same procedure as before. All these events were contained within the story. At this point the students are not being asked to predict the final outcome of the story, due mainly to the fact that they might easily get these two objectives mixed up. It is a good idea to make sure that students know each present objective before proceeding to the next one.

Evaluation

This time the teacher may tell students that he is going to read a story and, without any prior notification, he is going to stop at certain points within the story. Students will be asked what conclusions can be reached at each point, concerning the character or characters and the event.

This story is entitled "One Scary Night" and the teacher may begin immediately to read it. He may read to the end of the first paragraph on page 24, . . . "I had been following a bear trail."

Students may be asked what their conclusions are about the girl at this point in the story. There should be little difficulty with this.

The teacher may read on to the bottom paragraph on page 24 to the lines, "Those windows seemed to stare at me--like the empty eyes of a skull. A story Connie had told me popped into my head." The students may be asked what

conclusions they may reach now regarding the girl in the spooky cabin. After a few minutes, the teacher may resume reading about a man, Bear Cub Butler, who lived in these woods and may have owned this cabin. The story told that Butler may have killed five men. The girl thought she was in his cabin, and he might return at any time. The teacher may now read to the top of page 26, "I was reaching" At this point the students are very likely to conclude that the girl really is in the cabin belonging to Bear Cub Butler. Further probing by the teacher should bring out the fact that Butler probably did kill five men and that he may be returning to this cabin at any time.

The teacher may read on to the middle of page 26, "At last I put thoughts of Bear Cub Butler out of my mind. I was almost asleep when - thump - thump - thump - thump! Someone was knocking to get in."

Ask students what their conclusions are at this point. They may respond that Bear Cub Butler has returned. The teacher should probe further as to what students think will happen if, indeed, he has returned. If it is not Bear Cub Butler, then what is the cause of the thumping noise. Lively discussion should follow at this point.

The teacher may now read to the middle of page 26, ". . . after a while I began to nod." This point is somewhat anti-climactic to the story, but a variety of conclusions may still be drawn. The teacher may now read on to the end

of the story. The mystery of Bear Cub Butler is finally cleared up, and the girl reaches her destination. The story is an exciting one and it should easily catch the interest of the students.

Follow-up

Bring to the class two or three films of some exciting activity, but be sure to preview each one first and select the points in each where the film may be stopped. Using the groups of two, run the film and stop it at a pre-selected point, asking each group to write their conclusion at this point. After this task is completed, the film may be resumed to the next stopping point, repeating this procedure to the end of the film. When this has been done, it would be a good idea to show the film right through without stopping so that the full scope of the film may be seen, rather than leaving the students with a piece-meal view of the film.

Ask students to do this whenever they are reading a story, to stop when they come to an exciting point and ask themselves what might happen next. If they find a particularly good story they should bring it to class, and read it aloud, stopping at the appropriate places for conclusions to be drawn by the other class members. The more exercises that can be done of this nature, the better. It leads to thoughtful reading, rather than the mere reading of words,

or thoughtful rather than passive listening. The awakening of the mental acuity of these children is one of the things that may be accomplished with exercises such as these.

Listening Objective 11: Predicting Outcomes

This section will help students to listen in order to predict the final outcome of a story, and evaluate them to determine how well they have been able to meet the requirements of this objective.

Materials

SRA Lab IIa. Power Builder, Blue 3, "Blackbeard the Pirate".

SRA Lab IIa. Power Builder, Brown 12, "Caught in a Well".

SRA Lab IIa. Power Builder, Green 3, "One Minute More".

Reader's Digest. New Reading Skill Builders, Level 2, Part 3, "Wolves are Like That", pp. 5-8.

The New Open Highways. Level 7, Blasting Off. "The Trojan Horse", pp. 402-408.

Readiness

Print the term "Listening to Predict Outcomes" in large letters on the blackboard. Ask students to find the phrase on their duplicated sheet for listening and write it at the top of the appropriate page in their notebook.

Review the accumulated listening objectives on their duplicated sheets both for students' ability to read them and for what they remember of the concepts of previous

objectives. Having done this, the teacher may move on to the present objective. He should first ask if any students know the meaning of the term "predicting outcomes". Even if some students do know what the phrase means, the teacher should still discuss its meaning for the benefit of all class members.

Remind students of the story done in the last objective, entitled "One Scary Night". In that story the action builds up until the girl is nearly scared out of her wits, when, suddenly, there is a knocking sound on the cabin. This may mean that Bear Cub Butler has returned, and if the stories she has heard are true, he may kill her. On the other hand, it may mean that a search party has found her, or it may mean any number of implied ideas. After this point, the story comes to its final conclusion. The students are reminded that if the reading had been stopped at this point and they were asked to say how the story ended, they would have been "predicting the outcome" of the story.

The Lesson

The teacher may take the selection "Blackbeard the Pirate" and tell the students that he is going to read almost to the ending of it, but at first he will help them to predict the final outcome. He may read to the end of the tenth paragraph; "Blackbeard called, 'Jump their ships and cut them down.'" The teacher may then say, "From this point

there are a number of possible endings to the story, some of which are as follows: Blackbeard was killed immediately; Blackbeard escaped, even though his men were defeated; he was captured and hanged; he was captured and put on exhibit travelling through many towns, etc." The teacher may then ask if students can think of any other possible endings to the story. It is important that students know they are not being asked for the 'correct' ending. They are asked to predict how a story will end based on the characters and events up to the point where reading was stopped. After students have had their say about how they think the story will end, the teacher may proceed to read the actual ending of the story. An exercise such as this makes for thoughtful rather than passive listening, and as such is a good educational procedure for educable mentally retarded students.

The next selection is entitled "Caught in a Well" and this time the teacher may tell the students that he will stop reading at a certain point, and will give one possible outcome of the story. They are to try to predict other possible outcomes of it. The story may be read aloud to the end of paragraph ten:

Handful by handful Sam dug, getting closer and closer to Benny. Sam was very tired, but he couldn't stop now. Then, all of a sudden he felt a little hand. It was icy cold.

The teacher may say that because the little boy's

hand was icy cold, then it is quite possible that he is dead. He may then ask for other possible outcomes of this story from the students. After the students have had their say, the teacher may read on to the actual end of the story.

The teacher may take the next selection, entitled "One Minute More", which is about a boy who falls through the ice and cannot get out. His dog Wolf goes for help. The story may be read as far as the end of paragraph ten,

People started to throw stones at Wolf. Then a policeman came and fired a shot at the dog. Wolf was cold, wet, and hurt, but he would not give up. He kept trying to get someone to follow him.

At this point the reading may be stopped and the students asked to predict the outcome of the story. When students have come up with all the endings they can, the teacher may give other possible alternatives. The teacher may then read on to the end of the story.

The next story, "Wolves are Like That", may now be taken and after telling the students that the same procedure will be followed, the teacher may read as far as the lower part of page 7: "He turned, took quick aim, and pulled the trigger." The students are now asked to predict the final outcome of the story. By this time they should be quite adept at predicting possible outcomes and should have little trouble with this one. After the students have had their say, the teacher may finish reading the story.

Evaluation

The last selection entitled "The Trojan Horse", while somewhat longer and more involved, follows the same procedure. The teacher may read as far as the middle of page 407, where the Greek Sinon, who was left behind to try to persuade the Trojans to pull the wooden horse inside the city walls, says, "If once the horse stands within Troy the city can never be defeated." At this point the students are asked to form into their groups of two and try to predict the outcome of the story. The student who can write in each group will write his or her own predicted outcome as well as that of the other member of the group. When this has been done, the students' predicted outcomes may be compared with the actual outcome of the story. If there is any doubt in the teacher's mind that some students still do not fully understand the process of predicting outcomes, he or she should feel free to select other stories and stay with this part of the exercise until all students can perform to his satisfaction in this regard.

Follow-up

Films are effective tools to be used in this section as well as in the previous one. The teacher should try to get action films in which the ending can go in at least two directions, more if possible. The films should be previewed so that the teacher knows exactly at which point to stop the

action and ask the students to predict outcomes. The groups of two may be utilized again, with the writer in each group writing his own and his partner's predicted outcomes. This being done, the predicted outcomes may be compared with the actual ending of the film.

Ask students to follow the same procedure with any stories they are reading, or stories being read to them. If they have any stories that illustrate this objective they should bring them to school. The teacher may read the story, following the same procedure as before.

The more exercises given in this regard, the more the objective will be reinforced. The teacher should not feel that he has to stop with the exercises given here. He may utilize as many stories or films as he judges necessary in order to ensure that all students are able to meet the requirements of this objective.

Speaking

Speaking Objective 1: Using Descriptive Words Meaningfully

This objective will help students to use descriptive words meaningfully, with an evaluation to determine how well students have been able to meet the requirements of this objective.

Materials

SRA Lab IIa. Rate Builder, Gold 5.

SRA Lab IIa. Rate Builder, Aqua 2.

SRA Lab IIa. Power Builder, Olive 7, "Tiger Hunt

in a Zoo."

Reader's Digest, New Reading Skill Builders, "Dox, A Great Police Dog," pp. 29-34.

Ask students to keep a separate notebook for speaking, and write or print their names on the front cover, along with the word "Speaking" in large letters. Instruct them to use two pages (one sheet) for each of the objectives, because some writing or printing will be necessary in some, if not all cases.

Readiness

Print the phrase "Using Descriptive Words Meaningfully" on the chalkboard and ask the students to find this objective on their duplicated sheet for speaking. Ask them to write this objective at the top of the first page in their speaking notebook. Ensure as much as possible that each student can read and understand the phrase.

The teacher should now try to find out how much the students already know about describing words. The terms "adjective" and "adverb" need not be used unless the teacher has been using them in some other context, and their usage would not confuse students.

Write the word "dog" on the chalkboard and ask students to find as many words as they can which tell about "dog". Students should have little trouble in finding words that describe "dog". The teacher may put the term "dog" on the board as follows:

_____ dog	_____ dog	_____ dog
_____ dog	_____ dog	_____ dog

As each appropriate response is given (e.g., old dog, puppy dog, mad dog, etc.), it may be written in the space provided on the board, with the teacher making as many spaces available as are needed.

Try the same exercise with the word "road". Using descriptive words given by students as well as some of his own, the teacher may write examples such as those following on the chalkboard:

<u>rocky</u> road	<u>paved</u> road	<u>shore</u> road
<u>smooth</u> road	<u>gravel</u> road	<u>forest</u> road
<u>steep</u> road	<u>muddy</u> road	<u>abandoned</u> road

The teacher should add as many more exercises of this nature as he deems necessary, in order that students understand the usage of this type of describing word.

Ask students to give orally other words which may be described as was done before. As each word is given, the teacher should ask for other words that describe it (e.g., "Susan gave the word 'house'. How many words can you say which will tell about the word 'house'?" Continue this procedure as long as is necessary to develop conceptual readiness.

The teacher may also use words that are "verbs", although the term need not be used unless it is to the students' advantage in some other context. Adverbs are words that describe verbs, but again the term need not be used.

A sentence such as the one following may be printed on the chalkboard:

The boy drove the car _____.

Ask students to say as many words as they can which may describe how the boy drove the car. If responses from students are slow in coming, the teacher may give one or more examples. When students have the idea of what is required in this case, there should be little difficulty in their ability to give appropriate responses. Some examples may be as follows:

	<u>recklessly</u>
	<u>slowly</u>
The boy drove the car	<u>carefully</u>
	<u>carelessly</u>
	<u>dangerously</u>

Take another example, asking students to think of and say words to describe the following situation:

The little girl skated	_____

After doing a number of exercises such as the above, students should have little trouble to find words that describe verbs.

The Lesson

Print the following short paragraph on the board and ask students to come up with verbal answers to fill in the blanks where the describing words have been left out:

The _____ girl led the _____ dog
_____ down the _____ road.

Any number of answers are acceptable, because in cases such as this, various answers may correctly fit the syntactic context. Logical or imaginative descriptive words are what is anticipated rather than "correct" answers.

Take the card, SRA Rate Builder, Gold 5, and read it aloud all the way through without stopping. When this is done, read through again, this time stopping to point out each describing word, along with the word that is described in each case. This selection is about the Puritans in early American history and the following descriptive words are used:

Stern describes the kind of people the Puritans were.

Christmas tells what time of the year it was.

First tells what Christmas it was for them in the new world.

Bleak describes the kind of Christmas it was for them.

Second tells what Christmas is being referred to.

Not happy describes the Puritans at Christmas.

Gloomy tells about their feelings.

Earlier tells about the days.

Holiday tells what kind of a cake it was.

Except for the describing words "first" and "second", the other words may have been different. Spend a few moments

discussing this fact (e.g., what word might have been used instead of "stern", or "bleak", etc.). The important point is that students grasp the concept that in using descriptive words, they have a choice usually of more than one word which may be used.

The next selection, SRA Lab IIa, Rate Builder, Aqua 2, should be read aloud all the way through first. Then the teacher should tell the students that he is going to read it again, this time sentence by sentence and they are to pick out the describing words as well as the words that are described.

Some of the more obvious describing words along with the words described are as follows:

upright sticks; tall monument; twelve numbers;
water clocks; mechanical clock; correct time;
master clock; "beep" signal; local station;
short-wave radio; every hour; accurate time.

Spend a few moments discussing some of these describing words with the students (e.g., water clock; other descriptive words may have been grandfather's clock, small clock, eight-day clock, wall clock, or any number of other alternative words that describe "clock"). It is important for students to know that there are choices to be had in descriptive words, so that they may use them more effectively in their speech as well as in their writing.

In the next selection "Tiger Hunt in a Zoo", the

teacher may tell students that he will repeat the same reading procedure as in the last case, but this time they will be asked to find alternative words for the describing words.

Some of the more obvious describing words are:

bird caretaker; large tiger; big, yellow eyes;
big animal; much care; big cat; zoo kitchen;
kitchen door; zoo keeper; slowly took (adverb);
tiger cage; garden rake; went quietly (adverb);
open door; bird cages.

Students should be given ample time to suggest alternative describing words. Some suggestions may be: bird caretaker could become animal caretaker; large tiger could become young, old, small, angry, male, female, or wounded tiger. It would be a good idea for the teacher to read the selection aloud again using the alternative describing words. It is possible that some of the choices of words may destroy the sense of the story. Students are cautioned to try not to do this. Each descriptive word used should fit the context of the overall selection.

Evaluation

The selection this time is entitled "Dox - A Great Police Dog". This time the teacher will read all the way through without stopping first and then instruct the students that in the second reading he will stop after every sentence

in which there is a describing word, but the describing word will not be read. They are to say a describing word or words that they think will best fit the omitted place. Some of the more obvious describing words for which students are to suggest alternatives are as follows:

old dog; best police dog; birthday dinner;
good smells; eating places; small places;
good boy; police station; your work;
many smells; six years; one smell; robber's
 coat; night watchman; watchman's clothes;
Joe's hand; big dog; police work.

Students should be given ample time to suggest alternative descriptive words, trying to ensure that the sense of the selection is maintained. If the words given drastically alter the semantic context of the story, then obviously the alternative descriptive words were inappropriate ones.

Follow-up

Ask students to form into their groups of two. Ask each group to compose a short paragraph, leaving out all describing words. This being done, they are asked to write the same story again, but this time all descriptive words will be put in. The more academically advanced student in each group will read both versions of their paragraph, so that other students may see the difference between the two paragraphs. This is a very effective method by which students

may see how much descriptive words add to a story.

Another version of this same exercise is to have each group write a story leaving out all descriptive words, and another group filling them in. Let them see the difference between the original version and the completed version.

Ask students why describing words are important. By this time they will have some idea that describing words make a more accurate or colourful description (e.g., if you say, "A dog chased me", this is not saying very much. However, if you say, "A large, surly German-Shepherd dog chased me", then a much more precise description is given).

Remind students to be aware of descriptive words whenever they are speaking or writing. Ask them to be listening for them in the speech of others as well.

The teacher should put the following words on the chalkboard and ask students to respond orally to them with descriptive words:

house	ship	bridge	ran
car	animal	skated	street

The teacher should continue with exercises such as these already given, supplemented by others of his own, until he feels reasonably certain that all students are proficient in the use of descriptive words in their speech.

Speaking Objective 2: Sticking to the Main Topic

This section will teach students to stick to the main topic with an evaluation to determine how well students have been able to meet the requirements of this objective.

Materials

SRA Lab IIa. Rate Builders: Olive 2, 7, 8, 9, 10,
11;
Blue 3, 6, 9;
Brown 12;
Tan 11;
Gold 4.

Readiness

Print the phrase "Sticking to the Main Topic" on the chalkboard and ensure as much as possible that all students can read and understand the phrase.

Now is also a good time to review the last speaking objective, for the students' ability to both read and understand it.

Ask students to find this objective on their duplicated sheet for speaking and ask them to write or print it in large letters at the top of page three of their speaking notebook.

The teacher should ask if any students know what this phrase means. Quite possibly, some students will have some idea of what it means but the teacher should still demonstrate the concept. He could say, "Sticking to the Main Topic means that if you are talking about one thing, you

should not talk about other ideas until you have finished the topic first (e.g., if you are talking about dogs, you should not talk about other animals unless they are related to the topic of dogs)."

As examples, the teacher may read SRA Lab IIa, Rate Builders, Olive 2 and 7. One is on the topic of flies, the other is about parakeets. After reading these two cards, the teacher should ask the students if any sentence, or any part of either selection, is not about the main topic. There is no sentence in either case which is not about the main topic, but it is important that the students be able to see this.

The teacher should now take SRA Lab IIa, Rate Builders, Olive 8 and 9. The first is about insects, the second is about clams. Rather than read each one straight through as it is, the teacher should insert one sentence in each that is not on the topic and see if the students can spot it without being asked to look for anything different. In number eight, the following sentence may be added at the end: "Oranges do not grow in cold climates." Ask students if they hear anything wrong about this selection. It is very likely that most students will recognize the sentence that is not on the topic but the teacher should ensure that all students can do so. In SRA Lab IIa, Rate Builder, Olive 9, about insects, after the fifth sentence insert, "Others eat the roots." The same procedure should be followed as before. By this time students should have a good idea as to

what they are listening for, and should have little trouble recognizing the sentence that is not on the main topic. The teacher should continue with similar exercises until he feels reasonably certain that all students know that sticking to the main topic means that there must be no sentence which is not on the main topic.

The Lesson

Using the groups of two, the teacher should give each group an SRA Rate Builder card. Some possible cards are Olive 10 (on ants), Olive 11 (on the platypus), Blue 3 (on elephants), Blue 6 (about Cookie a dog), Blue 9 (on birds), Tan 11 (on grasshoppers), and Gold 4 (on black widow spiders). The more academically able student in each group should be instructed to read the card he or she is given, and help the slower student as well. If, for example, a card is on ants, it should be read over until both people know the content of the card fairly well. They should then practice summarizing the card to one another, trying to remember as many of the main points of it as possible. They can also add more points of their own if they wish, providing the points are on the main topic.

As each group is ready, each student in it can sum up the main points of his or her card, either to the whole class, or just to the teacher if necessary. All points must be on the main topic. If a student gives a point that is not

on topic, he should be reminded of it gently, followed by questions designed to show why this particular point was not on topic.

If the teacher is not satisfied that all students in the group have grasped the concept of sticking to the main topic, he should feel free to select more examples and continue with them until all students can satisfy the requirements of this objective.

Evaluation

Have the students remain in their groups of two and assign topics, preferably of their own choosing, to the groups. Topics may be as follows: dogs, wild animals, fishing, television programs, pets, games, etc. After each group of two have agreed on a topic, they should prepare a short paragraph on it. The more advanced student in each group may write the words of the paragraph agreed to by the two students. They must try to eliminate any sentence that is not on the main topic. This being done, each student will speak either to the whole group, or to the teacher, giving the main points of his or her topic, and without straying from it. This exercise will inform the teacher whether or not more exercises are necessary on this objective.

Follow-up

Instruct students to form into their three larger

pre-selected groups and ask them to speak on certain topics (e.g., pigs, flying, insects, Christmas, etc.). Each person in the group must speak in turn, and what is said must be on the assigned topic, or that student is out. This continues until all students in a group are out except one, and he or she is the winner. It should be noted that a student cannot speak on the same topic twice; when he or she succeeds on one topic, another topic must be chosen. The teacher should intervene only in these cases when an occasion demands (i.e., if students cannot decide whether or not a statement is on topic, to settle disputes, etc.).

Ask students to listen to talk around them outside of class and decide if many people stray from the topic they are speaking about, but above all to be aware of straying from the topic in their own talk, and taking measures to correct it.

Speaking Objective 3: Sequence of Events

This section will help students to use proper sequence of events in speaking, with an evaluation to determine how well students have been able to meet the requirements of this objective.

Materials

SRA Lab IIa. Rate Builders: Orange 6, 10, 12;
Olive 5;
Brown 7;
Red 9;
Purple 2.

Readiness

Print the term "Sequence of Events" in large letters on the chalkboard. The teacher should ensure as much as possible that all students can read and understand the term. A short review of the past two speaking objectives may be done to ensure maximum retention of past concepts.

Ask students to find this objective on their duplicated sheet for speaking, and print it at the top of page five of their speaking notebook. Ask students what is meant by "sequence of events", and since they have already done "sequence" in their listening objectives, they should have a good idea of its meaning. However, it is still a good idea for the teacher to explain the concept again. Basically, "sequence of events" means to describe an action in the same order as it happened.

The Lesson

To demonstrate "sequence", the teacher may read aloud the three SRA Rate Builder Cards, Orange 6, 10, and 12. The first two, Orange 6 and 10, may be read in proper sequence. After each reading there should be discussion as to whether or not the events were in proper order. Students should have little trouble in noting that the events in each of these selections are in sequence.

The teacher may now take Orange 12 and read it aloud in a non-sequential order. It doesn't matter which order the events follow as long as they are not in their proper

sequence. Students should have no trouble in noting that the sequence of events is wrong because the story does not make sense. They may say that it is not a story at all. This is a good idea of what happens in speaking or writing when events are not in sequence.

Evaluation

Some typing and duplicating will be necessary for this evaluation. The four SRA Rate Builder cards are Olive 5, Brown 7, Purple 2, and Red 9. On master sheets type Olive 5 and Purple 2 in correct sequence, but type Brown 7 and Red 9 out of sequential order.

Brown 7 may be done as follows:

Up and down, up and down. A house will be built over the hole. It dug into the ground with its iron teeth and picked up a load of dirt. It went away and another truck came. Soon the truck was full of dirt. A steam shovel went into a lot and began to work. Again the shovel went into the ground. The steam shovel worked and worked until it dug a big hole. It put the dirt into a truck.

Red 9 may be done as follows:

"We were right," shouted the boys, "a bag of smoke will rise." Underneath it they made a fire. "If we put some of that smoke in a big bag, perhaps the bag would rise," said one. It was the hot air from the fire. Nearly two hundred years ago in France, two brothers stood watching smoke rise in the air. But they found out later that it was not the smoke that made the balloon go up. Soon the bag began to fill out into a great round ball. "Yes," said the other, "and if the bag were big enough, it might even lift us right up into the air too." It was the first balloon in the world. The boys built a huge bag of paper and cloth.

After the duplicated sheets are ready, the students should be asked to form into their groups of two, and informed that two of the typed selections are in proper sequence, while the other two are not in order. Students are first asked to find the two selections that are in sequence. This being done, they are to find the major events that are in order, and be prepared to say them aloud to the whole class. Time should be allowed so that the two people in each group may practice saying these events to each other. Each group may be the judge as to when they are ready to speak aloud to the whole class.

Staying in their groups of two, the students are asked to take the remaining two selections and put them in proper sequence. This being done, they will proceed in the same way as they did for the first two selections. The teacher may have prepared cardboard strips so that one sentence may be printed on each. After copying the sentences the groups may proceed to put them together so that a real story emerges. They are to do the same with both selections, and when this is done, each student will summarize the main events in sequence to the whole class. This exercise can be very difficult, so ample time should be allowed for the students to do this. The teacher should not feel that he has to stop with the exercises given here. He should continue with appropriate exercises until he feels reasonably certain that all students can use proper sequence in speaking.

Follow-up

Ask students to stay in their groups of two and prepare a short talk about something that happened to them personally. The more advanced student may help the less able student in each group as much as is necessary. The teacher should be circulating around the room giving help whenever necessary. The two people in each group may practice their story on each other, ensuring that all events are in proper order. When this is done, students are asked to tell their story to the whole class. When any one student is speaking, the others are to be listening for sequence of events. If it becomes evident that one or more students are still having trouble with this objective, the teacher should continue with similar exercises until he feels reasonably certain that all students are able to meet the requirements of this objective.

Ask students to listen to other people outside the school and determine if most people they know follow proper sequence when speaking. Above all, they are to be on guard against improper sequence in their own speech, and should make every effort to tell about things in their proper order.

Speaking Objective 4: Using a Telephone Effectively

This section will help students to use a telephone effectively, both sending and receiving calls, with an evaluation to determine how well students are able to meet the requirements of this objective.

Materials

At least two realistic toy telephones, access to a real telephone, and a current telephone book.

Readiness

Print the phrase "Using the Telephone Effectively" in large letters on the chalkboard and ask students to find this objective on their duplicated sheet for speaking. Ask them to write or print it on the top of page seven in their notebook for speaking. Ensure as much as possible that all students can read and understand the phrase. It would be a good idea at this time to review the previous three objectives in speaking both for students' ability to read the phrases and their recall of concepts.

Ask students how their lives would be changed if suddenly, there were no more telephones. Very likely, this is a situation they have not considered before, and it should make for interesting discussion. If necessary, the teacher could start the discussion with various questions such as, "Who would you not be able to call anymore?" or "In what circumstances does one absolutely need a telephone?" From this beginning, the students should be able to come up with and discuss many other situations relative to having no telephone.

Ask students if they would speak into a telephone in the same manner if they were speaking to a good friend as they would if they were speaking to the mayor, their doctor,

etc. Ask them if they would know immediately what number to call for the police, an ambulance, poison control, a fire station, etc. If they don't, this is a good opportunity to utilize a telephone book in finding these emergency numbers.

The Lesson

A telephone book is required for this part of the lesson, utilizing three or four if possible, so that no more than four students have to share one book. Ask them to divide into even groups depending on the number of telephone directories available.

Ask students if they know how to look up a person's name in a telephone directory. It may be necessary for the teacher to show them how this may be done. For example, if you are looking up the name of Peter Goulding, you look up the family name first--Goulding--which means that you look to the "G" section until you find "Go", proceeding on until you find the family name "Goulding". This being found, you proceed in alphabetical order with the first names until you come to Peter. If students already know dictionary skills, this section of the lesson will be merely a review of these skills.

To determine if students have mastered the skill of finding telephone numbers, they will be given a list of five to ten randomly selected names to find, writing down the numbers as they do so. From this exercise, the teacher will know whether or not more work needs to be done in this area.

Students should also know how to look up business, institutional and government numbers. In many cases there is one master number to look up and call, after which their calls will be transferred to the person with whom they wish to speak. In such cases, it is a relatively simple matter to look up the name of the building or the business, in the same way as they did in looking up family and first names, and then place their call.

If a person wants to call someone in government service, he may need to know what department the person is in. It is then necessary to find the section on the Federal or Provincial Government, look through in alphabetical order until you find his or her department, and finally locating the name or position of the person you wish to call. The teacher should demonstrate how this is done by using a telephone book. He should then ask students to do the same, until all students can master this exercise.

To call a business number it is often necessary to go to the yellow pages in the back of the telephone directory, look up the business required and then place the call through a central operator, asking for the person with whom you wish to speak. The teacher should demonstrate every step in this type of call, and then ask students to do the same, until all students are proficient in making a business call.

The actual usage of the telephones may take the form of drama. In this exercise, toy telephones may be used, with

two types of calls being made. The first type of call, the friendly telephone call, has few formal rules. The second type of call, the more formal telephone call, is the one that students need practice in. They may be told to follow the following guidelines when making a formal call: 1. Look up the number in the telephone directory and write it down; 2. Know the name and any title of the person being called; 3. Be brief and to the point. The teacher may demonstrate such a call. Imagine the call is to the personnel officer of a firm regarding a job that has been advertised in a daily newspaper. It might go in the following manner: 1. Look up the number in the telephone directory and write it down; 2. Dial the number and when someone answers the teacher may say, "May I speak with Mr. Brown please, the personnel officer of your firm?" 3. After the call is transferred, the one sided conversation may go something like this: "Mr. Brown, my name is Harold French, a teacher at Crescent Junior High; I wish to enquire further about the job that was advertised in yesterday's edition of the Evening Beacon. Your ad did not specify if a male or female is required, what age group is preferable, or what salary will be paid. If the position is not already filled, I have a friend who is now out of town, who may be interested in the position." Following this, the teacher may appear to be listening intently on what is being said, after which he may say, "Yes, but what is the nature of the work that the successful applicant will

be required to do and what are the working hours?" Again, after appearing to be listening, the teacher may say, "Thank you, Mr. Brown, I'll pass that information along to my friend and then it's up to him as to whether or not he applies. Good-bye."

This is just a sample demonstration; the teacher may do as many demonstrations as he deems necessary to ensure that students have some idea how to make formal telephone calls. After each demonstration, a discussion of the major points of effective telephoning would be recommended.

The students may now dramatize a number of formal calls. Ask them to look up the telephone numbers of real people in the telephone directory and treat the dramatized call as if it were a real one. Some formal situations which may be dramatized in using the telephone are as follows:

1. making a complaint about goods bought in a store;
2. inquiring about an article shown in a catalogue;
3. calling a municipal dignitary about an up-coming event (e.g., a parade, fireworks, etc.);
4. calling a doctor to enquire about a relative who has been seriously injured in an accident;
5. calling a store about a bill in which you were overcharged;
6. calling a government official regarding some impending legislation (e.g., all bikes must be

licenced, etc.).

The list of calls that may be simulated is limited only by the teacher's and students' imagination, stemming from local current conditions. The teacher may ask students to practice such calls until he feels reasonably satisfied that they are proficient in making formal calls. After each practice session, a short discussion of the strengths and weaknesses of that particular call should be undertaken. Peer feedback has proven to be an effective technique of informal evaluation.

Evaluation

It would be a good idea to arrange with another teacher, a friend or relative, to have students make actual calls to them using a telephone. Students would go through the procedure of looking up numbers, finding out the names as well as titles or positions of the people they are about to call. They must also know exactly why they are making the call. Students could then dial the correct number on a closed telephone line, after which the teacher may dial the pre-arranged number, and actual two-way conversations take place. All types of reasons for making formal telephone calls may be utilized, and the calls should continue until the teacher is satisfied with students' performance in this regard. It is necessary to note that the usage of a real telephone may not be possible within the confines of a classroom, but an office or a staff-room may be utilized when such

places are not otherwise in use.

Another consideration is how to behave when a wrong number is dialed. The teacher should make a demonstration call illustrating acceptable behavior in this regard. This call may also be pre-arranged, with the teacher saying at the end, "I'm sorry, I have dialed a wrong number, thank you." Then he should hang up without further words. Students may also practice this eventuality until the teacher is satisfied that all students know how to behave acceptably when they have dialed a wrong number.

A tape recorder is an effective evaluation device to use when students practice making various kinds of calls. By replaying the student's own words, the strengths and weaknesses of each call may more readily be seen and appropriate action taken to reinforce acceptable behavior and correct behavior that is inappropriate.

Follow-up

For a period of a week or two, arrange for students to call you, the teacher, at home at certain pre-arranged times. All sorts of pre-arranged situations may be covered. This activity enables a teacher to obtain a good idea as to how well students have done in this regard since he has only the students' voices to concentrate on, and not a host of other mannerisms which may distract attention from the content of the call.

If any students actually need to make formal telephone calls, time may be made available for discussion about them in class. The student's right to privacy, however, should always be respected, and discussion may take place only if that particular student is willing.

The samples given in this section are only a small number of the available possibilities. The teacher should continue with each phase of telephone usage until he feels satisfied that all students can behave appropriately in each situation.

Speaking Objective 5: Asking for and Giving Information

This section will help students to both ask for, and give information adequately with an evaluation to determine how well this objective has been achieved.

Materials

SRA Lab IIa. Rate Builders: Orange 5, 11;
Olive 1, 2, 7, 8, 9, 10,
11;
Blue 9;
Brown 1, 5, 11.

Readiness

Print the phrase "Asking and Giving Information" in large letters on the blackboard and ask students to find this objective on their duplicated sheet for speaking. Ask them to write or print the phrase in large letters at the top of page nine in their speaking exercise books. Ensure as much as possible that all students can read and understand the

phrase.

Ask students when it is important to ask for information. Many answers may be forthcoming, such as the following: when you don't know how to reach a certain place; when you want to know more about certain subjects (e.g., dogs, turtles, etc.); when you don't know how to behave on certain occasions; when you don't know which product to buy out of two or more.

Ask why it is important to give information as correctly, and in as few words as possible. See if students can give appropriate responses. The teacher should emphasize the point that information should be correctly given because the person asking is about to act on that information. The information should be given in as few words as possible because it is more easily remembered that way.

The teacher may say, "I am thinking about getting a dog. I want a house pet, but I don't know which kind would be best for that purpose. Can you tell me which breed of dog would be best to suit my situation?" If no answers are forthcoming, the teacher may continue suggesting topics until students begin volunteering information. Some possible topics might be a good fishing pond, how to get to a certain place from here, an enjoyable current movie, etc.

The Lesson

Some typing and duplicating is necessary for this lesson. Type SRA Rate Builder, Brown 11 on a master copy

and duplicate enough copies for all students. Ask them to form into their groups of two for reading purposes. The teacher may say, "I want you to read the story you were just given, and then I am going to ask you for some information about it. I am going to ask you when big balloons were first made; what animals were used to try out the first balloon; what happened to the animals; did people ever go up in the balloons and were there airplanes at that time?"

Adequate time should be given for students to read this selection, and then the above questions should be asked to determine how well students are able to give information about them.

If the teacher is satisfied with students' responses, he may move on to the evaluation; if not, he should pick more examples and stay with this part of the exercise until all students are proficient in giving information.

Asking information may follow a more informal pattern. The teacher may demonstrate as follows: "John, you saw the movie, 'The Sound of Music' on television last night, so tell me what the movie was mainly about." After John has answered that question, more questions may follow such as the following: What was the name of the family in the movie? What country did the story happen in? Tell me about the trouble in which Captain Von Trapp was involved.

The teacher may now say, "Last summer, I spent some time in a small fishing village and I want you to ask me all

sorts of questions about it, until you know as much about the village as you want." If questions are slow in coming, the teacher might add, "The population of the place was only about two hundred; almost everyone there had some part in the fishing industry, even the children." This is merely to start students asking information about the place. Once students have started asking for information the teacher should answer all questions as accurately as possible. The teacher should stay with this topic, as well as others like it until he is satisfied with students' proficiency in asking for information.

Evaluation

Ask students to stay in their groups of two and give them copies of the SRA Rate Builders as listed under materials, matching the level of difficulty of each card to each student's reading ability as accurately as possible. With the more advanced student in each group helping the other one, ask them to read these cards for the information they contain. Adequate time should be given for students to do this. The teacher may print on the blackboard each student's name along with the subject of the SRA card that he or she has (e.g., Mary Brown--ants; Carl Jones--turtles; etc.). When students are ready, the class may be divided into two large groups, still keeping the groups of two intact. Group A, using the names and topics listed on the blackboard, will ask information of group B. Then, the situation will be

reversed, so that both groups have ample practice in both asking and giving information. The teacher should continue with this exercise, or others of his own choosing, until he is satisfied that all students can ask for and give information adequately.

Follow-up

Ask students to come up with as many topics as they can on which they would like information. The teacher should write the topics on the chalkboard and ask if any students can give specific information on some of them. The teacher may be able to supply some information, films may be the answer to some others. Asking speakers to come into the class may round out the total number of inquiries. An exercise of this nature may be an ongoing project, giving students both an opportunity to speak and supplying them with information of personal interest. The teacher may continue this practice as often as he desires to stay with it because it is an excellent learning experience.

Speaking Objective 6: Speaking Before a Group

This section will help students gain confidence in speaking before a group, with a continuous evaluation to monitor students' progress in this objective.

Materials (Same as in Objective 5)

SRA Lab IIa. Rate Builders: Orange 5, 11;
Olive 1, 2, 7, 8, 9,
10, 11;
Blue 9;
Brown 1, 5, 11.

statement

In working on the requirements of this objective, the same materials and very much the same procedure will be used as with the last objective, except that in this case the speaking will be done in front of the group. All students will be expected to do this unless there is some overriding circumstance or disability which may exclude certain students from doing so. If some students are shy, gentle persuasion over time, plus the examples of other students, will help overcome this shyness.

Readiness

Print the phrase "Speaking Before a Group" in large letters on the chalkboard and ask students to find this objective on their duplicated sheet for speaking. Ask them to write it at the top of page eleven of their speaking exercise book. Ensure as much as possible that all students can read the phrase with understanding.

Ask students if they have ever spoken in front of a group before. If any students have done so, ask them what it felt like. For those who have not spoken in front of a group, ask them if they would like to attempt such a task at some time. Ask them why it may be important to speak in front of groups of people. There may be many answers, such as to give orders, to teach, to tell jokes, etc. Most students will have some idea that in order to be a leader in any way, it is

necessary to be able to speak in front of groups of people.

Most students display a hesitancy to speak in front of the class and it is the teacher's job to gently prod each student into doing so. No force should be used, however, although it is a wise move to start this exercise with those students who are not adverse to public speaking. This makes it easier for other students to follow.

The Lesson

Ask students to form into their groups of two and use the same duplicated exercise as last time, SRA Lab IIa, Rate Builder, Brown 11. The teacher may tell the students that first he is going to read the selection aloud and they are to follow along on their own sheets as he reads. Then he is going to put down the card and speak in front of the class about the information on the card. They are instructed to listen carefully because they will be asked to do the same activity.

After the teacher has demonstrated how to go about speaking in front of a group, he should ask each group to go over their sheet carefully, trying to note all the details they can. He may remind them to look for such information as when big balloons were first made, what animals were used to try it out, what effect the balloon flight had on the animals, did people go up in the balloons and were there airplanes at that time? Students should then be instructed to read their story and practice summing up

the information to one another. After they have done this, to their own satisfaction, the speaking in front of the class may begin. The teacher needs to be diplomatic enough to call on the students who have little or no fear of public speaking to begin this exercise. Since all students are doing the same selection which is about early balloon flights, and they have already practiced summing up the information in it, there should be little difficulty with the content material. The objective of this part of the exercise is two-fold: 1. that students be able to speak with relative ease in front of the class, and 2. that students gain a growing awareness of content organization which makes for more effective speaking. The teacher should stay with this exercise or similar ones until students have achieved both objectives.

Evaluation

Ask students to remain in their groups of two each, and distribute the SRA cards as listed under materials, matching the level of difficulty of each card as accurately as possible to each student's reading ability. With the more advanced student helping in each group, students may be asked to read their cards, trying to remember the content because they will be asked to speak about it in front of the class. They may practice their 'speech' on each other in each group until they are ready to speak in front of the class. When they are ready to speak, the teacher may again

call on the students not adverse to public speaking. This should make for an effective start, after which the other students usually follow with greater ease. Care should be exercised in not asking a student to do something which he cannot. This leads to an embarrassing situation for the student and may set him back rather than carry him forward. The teacher may stay with this, or similar exercises until he feels reasonably sure that all students can speak before a group with relative ease and effective organization of content material.

Follow-up

Ask students to watch a specific television show, and be prepared to talk about it in front of the class. Ask them to be prepared on the next school day to speak about a subject such as a pet, my street, an airplane ride, etc. After each speech a discussion of its strong and weak points may be held, making sure that no student is embarrassed in the discussion.

As students gain more confidence in speaking before the class, it may be possible to get them involved in a variety show being done by the school, or in making some announcements in an assembly.

The ability of a student to speak in front of a group is a very effective tool in raising a student's self-esteem. Once a student can be brought to this point, many negative attitudes towards the self begin to be dropped, and a

significant gain has been made to this student's idea about his ability to learn. Academically, what was seemingly impossible to him or her has now become possible. This is not because he or she has become suddenly smarter, but because negative ideas of the self have given way to more positive ones.

A Review

Now that listening activities are formally finished, it is a good idea to review all the oracy skills done up to this point. The students' duplicated sheets may be used for this purpose. Check and see if all students can still read the accumulated lists of objectives in both listening and speaking. Also, check back through the lists for retention of concepts of the objectives.

Review should be a continuous process, with systematic learning and systematic review. This, in itself, will prove to be a powerful motivating influence for further learning.

Reading Objective 1: Sight Word Development

This section will help students build as large a sight vocabulary as possible, with continuous evaluation to check the progress of each individual student.

Statement

The meeting of the requirements of this objective will not follow the usual form of a lesson; rather, it is an

on-going procedure which includes words from:

1. the New Open Highways Starter Concept Cards;
2. The 220 Dolch Basic Sight Words;
3. Wilson's Essential Vocabulary;
4. Community Signs and Safety Precautions.

This section will present vocabulary from the basic word lists above, and show, by example, certain exercises that may be done to help students build a larger sight word vocabulary. No attempt will be made to utilize all the words. The onus is on each individual teacher to further continue the exercises given, depending on the needs of his or her students in this area.

Materials

The New Open Highways. From Starter Concept Cards to as high a level as is necessary.

SRA Lab IIa. From the lowest rate builder to as high as is necessary on the Rate or Power Builders.

Reader's Digest. New Reading Skill Builders, at whatever level is necessary.

Readiness

Write the phrase, "Building a Large Sight Vocabulary" in large letters on the chalkboard and ask students to find it on their duplicated sheet for reading. Ask them to write the phrase at the top of page one of their reading exercise book and ensure as much as possible that all students can read and understand the phrase.

Basic Word ListsThe New Open Highways. Starter Concept Cards (Word List)

The following word list is from The New Open Highways

Series (1967).

animals	easel	lemon	roof	white
apple	elephant	lion	rug	wig
apron				woman
	fan	man	sandwich	
baby	fish	monkey	seal	X-ray
basket	fork	moon	sock	
bear	fox	mop	sun	yarn
bed				yellow
bike	game	nail	sheep	yo yo
bird	girl	needle	shell	
black	goat	nest	shirt	zebra
blue	green	nuts	shoe	zipper
book	gum			
boots		octopus	table	
box	hammer	ogre	tiger	
boy	hat	orange	tooth	
brown	hook	(color)	tub	
bus	horse	orange	tree	
	house	(fruit)	turtle	
cake			thermos	
can	icicles	peach	thimble	
cap	insects	pear	things	
car		people	torn	
cat	jar	pie	thumb	
colors	jacks	pig		
	jeep	potato	umbrella	
chain	jet	puppy	unicorn	
chair		purple		
cherries	kangaroo		valentine	
children	key	queen	vase	
	kite		vest	
deer	kittens	rabbit	violin	
dog		rainbow		
doll	lamp	red	wagon	
duck	leaf	ring	watch	

220 Dolch Basic Sight Word List (Barbe, 1976).

a	as	again	about	any
all	away	ate	after	better
am	be	black	always	both
an	black	but	around	bring
and	brown	cold	ask	carry
are	by	cut	because	clean
at	came	fast	been	could
big	did	first	before	done
blue	eat	five	best	don't
call	fall	fly	buy	draw
can	find	four	does	drink
come	for	give	four	eight
do	get	goes	found	every
down	going	going	full	hurt
funny	have	got	gave	know
go	her	green	grow	light
good	him	had	old	myself
he	his	has	how	never
help	if	hot	just	own
here	into	its	keep	pick
I	laugh	long	kind	right
in	let	made	much	seven
is	live	many	must	shall
it	may	new	now	show
jump	my	not	off	their
like	no	of	once	them
little	old	open	only	then
look	on	please	round	there
make	one	or	sleep	these
me	put	our	small	think
out	saw	pool	take	those
play	said	read	tell	together
pretty	she	saw	thank	use
ran	sit	say	that	very
red	some	sing	they	want
ride	stop	six	this	warm
run	three	soon	too	wash
see	today	ten	try	went
so	two	upon	under	what
the	was	us	walk	when
to	will	who	well	where
up	work	why	were	which
we	yes	wish	white	would
you	yellow	your	with	write

Wilson's Essential Vocabulary (Rawlyk, 1977)

Adults only	Do Not Use Near Heat
Antidote	Do Not Use Near Open Flame
Beware	Doctor (Dr.)
Beware of the dog	Down
Bus Station	Dynamite
Bus Stop	Elevator
Caution	Emergency Exit
Closed	Employees Only
Combustible	Entrance
Contaminated	Exit
Condemned	Exit Only
Deep Water	Explosives
Dentist	External Use Only
Don't Walk	Fall Out Shelter
Do Not Cross, Use Tunnel	Fire Escape
Do Not Crowd	Fire Extinguisher
Do Not Enter	First Aid
Do Not Inhale Fumes	Flammable
Do Not Push	Found
Do Not Refreeze	Fragile
Do Not Shove	Gasoline
Do Not Stand Up	Gate
Handle With Care	Gentlemen
Hands Off	No Fires
	No Loitering

Wilson's Essential Vocabulary (Cont'd)

Help	No Fishing
High Voltage	No Hunting
In	No Minors
Inflammable	No Smoking
Information	No Spitting
Keep Away	No Touching
Keep Closed at ALL Times	No Trespassing
Keep Off (The Grass)	Not for Internal Use
Keep Off	Noxious
Ladies	Nurse
Lost	Office
Live Wires	Open
Men	Out
Next (Window) (Gate)	Out of Order
No Admittance	Pedestrians Prohibited
No Cheques Cashed	Poison
No Credit	Poisonous
No Diving	Police (Station)
No Dogs Allowed	Post No Bills
No Dumping	Post Office
Posted	Warning
Private	Watch Your Step
Private Property	Wet Paint
Pull	Women
	All Cars (Trucks) Stop

Wilson's Essential Vocabulary (Cont'd)

Push	Ask Attendant for Key
Safety First	Beware of Cross Winds
Shallow Water	Bridge Out
Shelter	Bus Only
Smoking Prohibited	Caution
Step Down	Construction Zone
Step Up	Curve
Taxi Stand	Danger
Terms Cash	Dangerous Curve
Thin Ice	Dead End
This End Up	Deer (Cattle) Crossing
This Side Up	Detour
Up	Dim Lights
Use Before (Date)	Dip
Use in Open Air	Do Not Block Walk (Driveway)
Use Other Door	Do Not Enter
Violators will be Prosecuted	Drifting Sand
Walk	Drive Slow
Wanted	Loading Zone
Emergency Vehicles Only	Look
End 45	Look Out for Cars (Trucks)
End Construction	Listen
Entrance	M.P.H.
Exit Only	Mechanic on Duty
Exit Speed 30	Men Working

Wilson's Essential Vocabulary (Cont'd)

Falling Rocks	Merge Left (Right)
Flooded	Merging Traffic
Floods When Raining	Military Reservation
Four Way Stop	Next
Freeway	No Left Turn
Garage	No Parking
Gate	No Passing
Go Slow	No Right Turn
Hospital Zone	No Right Turn on Red Light
Inspection Station	No Smoking area
Junction 101-A Keep to the Right (Left)	No Standing
Land Ends	No Stopping
Last Chance for Gas	No Turns
Left Lane Must Turn Left	No "U" Turns
Left Turn on This Signal Only - Signal On	Not a Through Street
Left Turn Only	One Way - Do Not Enter
Left Turn O.K.	One Way Street
Pavement Ends	Stop When Occupied
Playground	Stop Motor
Proceed at Your Own Risk	This Lane Must Turn Left
Private Road	This Road Patrolled by Aircraft
Put On Chains	Three Way Light
R.R.	Turn Off $\frac{1}{2}$ Mile ($\frac{1}{2}$ mile)
	Turn Off

Wilson's Essential Vocabulary (Cont'd)

Railroad Crossing	Traffic Circle
Restrooms	Truck Route
Resume Speed	Unloading Zone
Right Lane Must Turn Right	Use Low Gear
Right Turn Only	Watch for Flagman
Road Closed	Watch for Low Flying Aircraft
Road Ends	Winding Road
School Stop	Yield
School Zone	Yield Right of Way
Slide Area	
Slippery When Wet (Frosty)	
Slow Down	
Slower Traffic Keep Right	
Speed Checked by Radar	
Steep Grade	
Stop	
Stop Ahead	
Stop for Pedestrians	

Community Signs and Safety Precautions

The following Community Signs and Safety Precautions are from Rawlyk, 1977.

No Hunting	General Delivery
No Minors	Special Delivery
Not for Internal Use	Apply at Office
Rest Area	North Dakota Employment Service
No Pedestrians	Unemployment Division
Shallow Water	Please Be Seated
Prohibit	Directory
Manager	Antidote
This End Up	No Salesmen Allowed
Use Before _____	Dynamite
Expires	Customer Service
Use in Open Air	No Admittance
Violators Will be Prosecuted	No Cheques Cashed
Ask Attendant for Key	Flash
Flooded	No Credit
Garage	No Dumping
Parcel Post	No Loitering
For Sale	Taxis Only
Waiting Room	Terms--Cash
Laborers Wanted	Bridge Out
Employment Office	Bus Only

Construction Only	Loading Zone
Curve	M.P.H.
Dangerous Curve	No Passing
Dead End	Mechanic on Duty
Deer Crossing	Men Working
Dim Lights	Signal Ahead
Dip	Soft Shoulders
Do Not Block Drive	School Zone
Do Not Block Walk	For Rent
Do Not Enter	No Soliciting
One Way	Auction
Drive Slow	Radioactive
Emergency Vehicles Only	Yield
End Speed Zone	No Stopping on Bridge
End Construction	Minimum Speed 40
Exit Speed--30 M.P.H.	Deliveries in Rear
4 Way Stop	Toll Road Ahead
Interstate	Resume Safe Speed
Slow	Customer Parking
Inspection Station	Apt. for Rent--Furnished, Unfurnished
Junction	Divided Highway
Lane Ends	Merging Traffic
Last Chance for Gas	Parking Limit
Left Lane Must Turn Left	Checkroom
Left Turn on Signal Only	

House for Rent	First Aid
Free Parking	Boys - Girls
No Vacancy	In - Out
Wash Hands before Leaving	Keep Off
Stop for Repairs Only	Keep Closed at ALL Times
Notary Public	Keep Out
Cheques Cashed Here	No Fishing
Road Side Park	Do Not Touch
Truck Route	Office
By-Pass	Open
Keep Off Median	Poison
Emergency Stopping Only	Police
Slower Traffic Keep Right	Post Office
Tow-Away Zone	Pull--Push
Clearance	Step Up--Step Down
Traffic Lights:	Warning
red--stop	Wet Paint
yellow--wait	Danger
green--go	Look--Stop--Listen
Caution	Look Out for Trucks
Closed	Fire Alarm
Deep Water	Toilet
Don't Walk	Beware of Dog
Do Not Push	Bus Station
Doctor (Dr.)	Bus Stop
Dentist	
Down	

Elevator	Use Other Door
Do Not Enter	No Shoplifting
Do Not Use Near Heat	Wanted
Emergency Exit	Watch Your Step
Entrance	Stairs
Exit	Hospital
Exit Only	Telephone
Fallout Shelter	Put Trash Here
Fire Escape	This Way Out
Flammable--Nonflammable	U.S. Mail
Hard Hat Area	Do Not Disturb
Gasoline--Fuel	Intermission
Gentlemen--Ladies	No Fishing From Bridge
Men--Women	Cashier
Hands Off	Please Use Handrail
Keep Right--Left	Ticket Office
No Diving	Handle at Own Risk
No Swimming	Please Pay when Served
No Dogs Allowed	Quiet
No Littering	Do Not Handle
No Trespassing	Restrooms
Out of Order	Ring Bell
Posted	Adults Only
Private	Combustible
Private Property	Do Not Inhale Fumes
Do Not Refreeze	Fragile

Do Not Use Near Open
Flames

Employees Only

Explosives

External Use Only

Fire Extinguisher

Lost and Found

Handle With Care

Help Wanted

High Voltage

Information

Instructions

Next Window

No Fires

The Lesson

Ask students to form into their groups of two students each for the following exercise. The "New Open Highways Starter Concept Cards" will be used in groups of ten words each, as well as teacher made sentences designed to ensure that students can both recognize each word as well as know the meaning of it as used in context. The more able student will help the lesser able one in each group. Each of these cards contains both the printed symbol of the word as well as a picture to illustrate the word. Each group will be given ten of these cards, for example, the first ten words are animals, apple, apron, baby, basket, bear, bed, bike, bird, and black. He should print the word "animals" on the board and ask students to find it among the ten word cards they have. Saying the word slowly, he should ask the students to say it as well. He should then ask them to print the words at the top of page one of their reading exercise book. The teacher should then print three words on the board, for example, blue, hammer, animals, and ask them to print these

in their exercise books as well, instructing them to draw a circle around the word "animals". This part of the exercise should be continued until all students can identify the word "animals". This being accomplished, the word may now be placed in context, for example:

Dogs are _____ (people, animals, hammers).

In the zoo there are many _____ (stars, cups, animals).

When all students have demonstrated to the teacher's satisfaction that they can recognize the word "animals" used in context, he may ask them to write two or three sentences using the word "animals". The teacher and the more able students may help less able students to do this exercise at first. He should stay with this part of the exercise until all students can use the word "animals" correctly in sentences.

Having finished with the word "animals", the teacher should take the next word, "apple", and follow a similar procedure with it, and continue on until all the first ten words have been dealt with so that all students know these words in context.

Mini-Evaluation

The teacher should prepare a master copy with ten relatively simple sentences on it, in which students have to fill in the blanks with one of the ten words they should know by this time. If the teacher has spent an adequate amount of time ensuring that each student has developed a working

definition for each of the ten words, there is every reason to believe they should do well on the following sentences. Students should be instructed to fill in the blanks with one of the following words: animals, apple, apron, baby, basket, bear, bed, bike, bird, and black.

1. I like to ride my _____.
2. I have a little _____ brother.
3. I sleep in a _____.
4. I like to eat an _____.
5. My mother wears an _____.
6. We bought a _____ of fruit.
7. My friend has a budgie _____.
8. The movie was about a _____ cub.
9. _____ is a color.
10. I have many pets. I like _____.

Sentences using these words may also be constructed for the students to read, for example:

1. Baby animals are cute.
2. The black bear ate an apple.
3. The girl had a baby bird in a basket.
4. The girl had on a black apron.
5. The basket was on the bed.

If students have been able to do the preceding exercises reasonably well, the teacher should proceed with the next ten words; if not, then he should rework the same ten words using them in other sentences until he is satisfied

that all students can read these words in context.

Still using the groups of two, the teacher should proceed with words in groups of ten, and proceed in a similar manner as before until students are relatively proficient with the "New Open Highway Starter Concept Card word list" and the "220 Dolch Basic Sight word list."

Evaluation for students using the
two preceding word lists

It has been the writer's experience that students at the junior high level do not appreciate using books which utilize only the preceding word lists, so the teacher will need to do some typing and duplicating. Exercises such as those following may be utilized. No attempt will be made to use all the words in this evaluation, but the teacher in the classroom will need to prepare similar exercises which will use all the words, not merely once, but over and over again until all students are proficient in the usage of these words in context. Passages and questions on them will attempt to use primarily the words on the two lists; any other word should be pointed out to them before they begin the exercise.

One day we went to a zoo. We saw a black bear and a big elephant. We saw five birds. There were tigers, kangaroos, monkeys, and lions. In the water we saw a seal, an octopus, and many kinds of fish. One monkey had on a wig and an apron. He was very funny. One girl wanted to stay at the zoo. Soon it was time to go to the bus and we all went home. It was a nice day.

Most questions for the lower group will be factual; as they become more adept at reading, the nature of the

questions may gradually change to inferential and critical.

1. What place did the children go to visit?
2. Name four animals they saw.
3. What did they see in the water?
4. What made one monkey very funny?
5. What did one girl want to do?
6. How did they get to and from the zoo?
7. What kind of day did they have?

Words may be selected at random from both lists and the students be asked to write sentences using them. The teacher should stay with exercises such as these until he is satisfied with students' performance relative to using these words in context.

Lesson for More Able Students

Having helped the less academically able students with the previous two basic word lists, these students should have little difficulty with them, and should be moved on to the harder lists. This may be done while the lower group is doing seat work utilizing the lists of words they have learned to recognize in context. The same basic pattern may be used with this group as was used with the other, taking the words in groups of ten and learning to use them in context.

The first ten words or phrases from "Wilson's Essential Vocabulary" are: Adults Only, Antidote, Beware, Beware of the Dog, Bus Station, Bus Stop, Caution, Closed,

Combustible, and Contaminated.

The teacher should write the first term "Adults Only" on the board and ask the more able students to write it at the top of page one in their reading exercise book. He should ask if any students can read the phrase, and if there are some who can, he should ask them to do so. The teacher should read through the words by syllables "A-dults On-ly", and then ask all students to read it individually. He should then put three phrases on the chalkboard, for example, Adults Only, Adults with Children, Children Only and ask students to write the terms on their book, drawing a line under the term "Adults Only". If all students have been able to do this, the term should be placed in context, for example:

The sign on the boat said adults only:

The term _____ means that no children are allowed.

Ask them to write two or three sentences in which the term "Adults Only" may be used.

When the teacher is satisfied that students know and can use the term "Adults Only" in context, he should proceed to the next term "Antidote". The same procedure should be followed until all ten terms have been used and then he should check to determine if students have retained their knowledge of the concepts involved.

Evaluation of First Ten Terms

Instruct students to fill in the following blanks with Adults Only, Antidote, Beware, Beware of the Dog, Bus Station, Bus Stop, Caution, Closed, Combustible, or Contaminated. If adequate time and care have been taken with each term, students should have little trouble with the following exercise.

1. A number of people were waiting on the sidewalk at a _____.
2. The school was _____ because of a blizzard.
3. The sign outside the movie theatre said _____.
4. The water in the lake was _____.
5. Bus tickets may be bought at a _____.
6. The _____ for this poison is to induce vomiting.
7. A huge German Shepherd dog was inside the yard; a sign on the fence said _____.
8. Oily cloths are very _____; keep them away from open flames or too much heat.
9. The man said, "Use extreme _____ when using this boat."
10. The sign said _____ of snakes in this area.

Students may also be asked to write sentences using the above ten words. If they have performed adequately, the teacher should move on to the next ten terms; if not, he should redo the previous ten until all students are proficient in their usage.

The Lesson (Cont'd)

Following a similar procedure the teacher should move on to the next ten words, evaluating after each ten, and continue on until all the terms have been covered in "Wilson's Essential Vocabulary" and "Community Signs and Safety Precautions". Adequate time should be spent with each ten words so that all students know them reasonably well. If this is done, and mini-evaluations are done after each ten, there is every reason to believe that students will have a good working knowledge of the terms.

Evaluation

Some typing and duplicating of material will be needed in this case, although no attempt will be made to utilize all the terms. It is the prerogative of the classroom teacher to improvise exercises so that students may have practice with all the words and phrases, not once but many times. Students may be asked to read exercises such as the following:

When you drive a car, caution must be used at all times. Construction zones, cross-walks, dangerous curves, and posted speed limits are only some of the things to watch for. No Parking signs, Taxis Only, Bus Only are just some of the things to be on the lookout for when trying to find a parking place. Some special signs to watch for are This Road Patrolled by Aircraft, Left Lane Must Turn Left, No Entry, One Way Street, Yield, No Stopping and many more like them. These are just some of the inconveniences you must take into consideration when you have the privilege of driving a car.

Any number of examples may be given like this, although it will take a fair amount of the teacher's time

for preparing them.

The students may be asked to write sentences in which some of the terms may be used. From the sentences, the teacher will be able to see if students are able to use the terms in context or not. He should continue with exercises such as the previous two for as long as he considers it necessary.

Follow-up

The teacher should have several copies of the "New Open Highways" books at all levels, as well as a number of the "Dolch Easy Readers" and a large number of low-vocabulary, high-interest books around the classroom. Ample time should be given for students to read these books, but if some students do not use them, the teacher should be prepared to do some typing and duplicating of stories so that students may be assigned to read them and be prepared to answer questions on them.

Ask students to read one book or one story and be prepared to tell the rest of the class about it. Help should be given where necessary.

The teacher should read aloud from a number of books, sometimes all the way through, sometimes just enough to whet students' appetites to read.

The teacher should be a good example in reading. He should read from many books letting his reaction to each one show. His personal experience with books may teach the

students that reading is pleasurable, more than anything he may say about books. If the teacher says that reading is a pleasure, but the students never see him reading, this, in itself is a negative statement about books and reading.

Reading Objective 2: Structural Analysis (Root
Word plus Prefix and Suffix)

This section will help students recognize root words, when prefixes, suffixes, or both are added to them, with an evaluation to determine how well students have been able to achieve this objective.

Materials

Only what is given in this exercise, although the teacher may supplement them with more examples of his own.

Readiness

Print the phrase "Using Structural Analysis (Root Words, Prefixes and Suffixes)" on the chalkboard and ask students to copy it on the next unused page of their reading exercise book. The teacher should ensure as much as possible that all students are able to read the phrase with understanding.

The teacher should do a very basic demonstration of what is meant by root word, prefix and suffix. He may take the word "work", and ask if students know what the word is. By this time, most students will know it. Then he may add to the word work, the suffix "able". It now looks like this, "workable". The teacher may explain that the part at

the end, "able", is a suffix, and it means that something is able to work (i.e., a motor is workable). Now the teacher may add the prefix "un" at the beginning of the word. The word now looks like this: unworkable. He may tell the students that the part in front, the "un", is a prefix, and he may ask what the word means now. Through guided discussion it will become apparent that the word "unworkable" means that something does not work or is not able to work. The teacher may show the root, prefix and suffix on the board as follows, and he should ask students to copy it in their reading exercise book.

prefix	root word	suffix
un	work	able

He should continue with other examples of root word, prefix and suffix until all students know the basic meaning of each term. The teacher may ask for other examples from the students. If they are slow in responding he may start with such examples as mis-manage (to not manage right), in-secure (not secure), un-like (to not be like something), or un-like-able (not likeable, or to not be able to be liked).

The Lesson

No attempt will be made to utilize all common prefixes

and suffixes. This lesson will present a sample number, which the classroom teacher may add to as he sees fit, to meet the particular needs of his class.

Ask students to form into their groups of two, so that help may be more readily available to the less academically able than it would be if all students worked separately.

Since students already know what is meant by root word, prefix and suffix, the teacher may begin the lesson starting with prefixes.

The teacher may explain that prefixes change the meanings of words, for example, the prefixes "im, un, in, and dis" mean "not"; "pre" means "before"; "re" means to "do over".

Applying the above prefixes to words on the chalkboard will demonstrate how these changes in meanings of words take place.

Students should be asked to write in their exercise book for reading what has been written on the board.

The teacher may write the words "possible" and "pure" on the board and ask students what they mean. Through guided discussion, it can be shown that "possible" means that something is able to be done, and "pure" means to be free of damaging qualities (whatever these qualities may be).

The teacher may then apply the prefix "im" to both these words, so that they become "impossible" and "impure",

and ask students what the newly formed words mean. With the teacher guiding the discussion, students may be brought to understand that the prefix "im" has changed what is "possible" to "not possible", and what is "pure" to "not pure".

The teacher may explain that "im" is not the only prefix that means "not". Some others are "un", "dis", and "in". Using these prefixes the teacher may show how the word "safe" may be changed to "not safe" by adding the prefix "un"; the word "approve" may be changed to "not approve" by adding the prefix "dis"; and the word "secure" may be changed to "not secure" by adding the prefix "in".

A more concise listing of words with prefixes follows:

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possible ..... changed to "not possible (impossible)";
secure ..... changed to "not secure (insecure)";
stable ..... changed to "not stable (unstable)";
approve ..... changed to "not approve (disapprove)";
arrange ..... changed to "arrange before
                        (prearrange)";
paint ..... changed to "paint again (repaint)".
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After ensuring that all students know how to use the more common prefixes, the teacher may move on to suffixes. Students should already know that suffixes are affixes added to the end of words that change their meaning. One example of this is the suffix "er", for example:

help by adding "er" becomes one who helps,
"helper".

work by adding "er" becomes one who works,
"worker".

Other examples of **if** suffixes are "ist" (one who); "less" (without); "full" (full of **of**); and "ward" (in the direction of). These suffixes may be written on the board and then demonstrated by being added to **to** root words, for example:

Help with "fulfull" becomes "helpful", meaning full of help;

Geology with **th** "ist" becomes "geologist", a specialist in geology;

Need with **less** becomes "needless", meaning without need;

West with "ward" becomes "Westward" meaning in a Westerly direction.

The teacher may stay with exercises like this until all students know how to use the more common suffixes.

Some root words may take both prefixes and suffixes and the teacher may demonstrate examples on the board. Examples of these are:

"Sink" means to go in a downward direction, but by adding the prefix "un" and the suffix "able", a new word is formed--"unsinkable" which means that something will not sink. Since the prefixes **es** and suffixes are primarily the same ones that were added before in the lesson, it is unnecessary at this point to go into the meanings of them again. Other examples of **of** root words with prefixes and suffixes are as follows, **v**, with students being asked to copy them in their reading exercise book:

"un + like + able" means unable to be liked;

"un + work + able" means unable to be worked, like a rusted motor;

"dis + approv + al" means for someone to not give their approval;

"dis + agree + able" means someone who does not agree.

The teacher may continue with as many more examples as he deems necessary for his class to be able to grasp the idea of adding both prefixes and suffixes.

Evaluation

Ask students to stay in their groups of two to do the following exercises:

1. Root word with prefix:

Ask students to write two sentences for each case; one for the root word, and another for the root word plus prefix. To do this exercise the student will first need to be able to recognize the root word and the prefix.

- a. repaint (1)
(2)
- b. unable (1)
(2)
- c. impure (1)
(2)
- d. dismount(1)
(2)
- e. indecent(1)
(2)

2. Ask students to follow the same directions as before, this time with root word and suffix.

- a. likeable (1)
(2)
- b. foolish (1)
(2)
- c. friendship (1)
(2)
- d. helpful (1)
(2)
- e. eastward (1)
(2)

3. Ask students to divide the following words into prefix, root word and suffix, and then write sentences to bring out the meaning of the complete terms.
 - a. unbearable (1) prefix/root word/suffix
(2) sentence
 - b. disappointment (1)
(2)
 - c. disrespectful (1)
(2)
 - d. prearrangement (1)
(2)
 - e. unaccountable (1)
(2)

With the students working in their groups of two, all students should be able to perform satisfactorily on the above exercises. At any rate, the feedback will let the teacher know if students are ready to move on to the next segment of this exercise, or if more work is needed on this present one. If more work is needed, the teacher should stay with this objective until he is satisfied with the performance of all students relative to root words, prefixes and suffixes.

Follow-up

Ask students to remain in their groups of two and try to get ten root words to which prefixes only may be added; ten to which suffixes only may be added; and ten to which both prefixes and suffixes may be added.

Ask them to turn to various pages, preselected by the teacher, from one of their text books and make a list of root words with prefixes, suffixes, or both.

The teacher should stay with exercises of this nature

until all students are proficient in the recognition and usage of root words to which prefixes, suffixes or both may be added. He should feel free to return to this, or any other exercise as often as he deems it necessary for effective retention of concepts.

Reading Objective 3: Use of Context clues

This section will teach students to use context clues as aids to word recognition, with an evaluation to determine how well students have been able to meet the requirements of this objective.

Materials

Only what is given in this section, which may be supplemented by exercises of the teacher's own choosing.

Readiness

Print the phrase "Use Context Clues" on the chalkboard, and ask students to find it on their duplicated sheet for reading. Ask them to write it at the top of the next unused page in their exercise book for reading, and ensure as much as possible that all students can read the phrase with meaning.

The term "context" may be new to students, so the teacher may start by giving a working definition of it. It should be noted at this point that this exercise takes place after students know reasonably well the sight word lists given

in reading objective 1. The teacher may say in effect, "Often, in reading, when you come to a word you don't know, you can guess what the word is, as well as its meaning, by reading the rest of the sentence. Here is an example." The teacher prints on the chalkboard the sentence, "The man was digging a hole with a _____." When students are asked what the final word might be, they should have little difficulty in knowing that the final word might be "shovel". The teacher may then ask how students knew what the word should have been. Through guided discussion the students are brought to see that the words "digging" and "hole" are clues which indicate that the final word is "shovel".

The teacher may now tell students that when they use other words they know in a sentence to guess an unfamiliar word, they are using "context clues".

The teacher may illustrate the use of context clues further by printing on the board the sentence, "An animal with a long trunk is an elephant." He may help students with all the words except the last one if it is necessary. Again, students should have little trouble in recognizing the last word as "elephant". He should then ask students what the clue words were. Guided discussion will reveal that they are "animal", "long", and "trunk".

The Lesson

The teacher may begin this lesson by summarizing what was done in the readiness section, explaining that when

familiar words are used as clues to guess an unfamiliar word, the process is called "using context clues". He may further explain that when they are using context clues, they are searching for a word which will match the ones they know so that the sentence makes sense. If they come up with a word that doesn't make sense, then they have used the wrong word, for example, "The man dug a hole with a paintbrush." When this sentence is read, students can readily see that the word "paintbrush" does not fit the words "dug" and "hole", and so, is wrong. The use of context clues is to make a sentence make sense, when known words are used to guess at an unknown one.

If the students now know what is meant by using context clues, then the teacher may illustrate different types of context clues (i.e., the utilization of syntactic and semantic clue structures).

Perhaps the simplest way to use context clues is the way just given, guessing an unknown word from other words in the same sentence that are known.

The teacher may use more illustrations, telling students that there will be words in each sentence that they will know, and they are to use these to guess at an unknown word. They are asked to name the clue words, for example:

The bird couldn't fly; it had a broken wing.

Students are asked to guess what the second last word is by using other words in the sentence that they know.

Through guided discussion, the words "bird", "couldn't fly" and "wing" should lead students to recognize the unfamiliar word as broken.

Ask students to do the same with the following sentences:

A teacher writes with chalk on a chalkboard.

It is often dark at night.

It is often very cold in winter.

In each case, students should point out the clue words which enabled them to guess the unfamiliar word.

Another way to use context clues is when sentences are jumbled, as follows:

cat away the ran.

It is quite likely that students can rearrange the words to make sense (i.e., The cat ran away); if there is difficulty, the teacher should make the change to show students how to do it. Then he should write another one on the chalkboard, for example:

down the walked the girl road.

Students are again asked to rearrange the words so that the sentence makes sense. They should have a better idea of what to do now.

The teacher may write two or three more examples on the board, so that students know what to do in cases like this.

cried little boy the (The little boy cried)

my ate I dinner (I ate my dinner)

rode the her girl bike (The girl rode her bike)

The teacher may give help if necessary, and continue with exercises such as these above until all students are reasonably proficient with them.

Another type of context clue is when a meaning is given and the word must be gotten from it. The teacher may illustrate on the blackboard as follows:

An animal with a long trunk is an elephant.

After looking at the words "animal" and "long trunk" it is not hard to guess that the final word is "elephant".

Other examples may be as follows:

We were watching the news on television.

Throw the old paper in the garbage can.

In all cases, students are asked to underline the words they used as clues to tell what the unfamiliar word was.

By this time, students should have a good idea of how to guess unfamiliar words from context. If some students still have difficulty, the teacher should continue with more exercises until they are reasonably proficient in their ability to gain new words from context.

Evaluation

Some typing and duplicating will be necessary for this part of the exercise.

Students are asked to name the underlined word in

each of the following sentences, and draw a ring around the words they used as context clues.

1. She dived into the deep water.
2. When you go out, be sure to close the door.
3. Susan was sweeping the floor with a broom.
4. It's cold out today; put on your warm clothes.
5. We saw a movie at a drive-in theatre.
6. There are many students in our school.
7. Jane ate a lot; she was very hungry.
8. Harry won the race; he was the fastest runner.
9. Drive carefully. The ice is very slippery.
10. The pitcher threw a curve ball to the batter.

Students are asked to rearrange the following verbs so that they make sentences:

1. lost boy little was the.
2. saw last movie a we night.
3. plane this ride my is first.
4. your please pen me loan.
5. father's green my is car.
6. out is tonight dark it.
7. grandmother's we my are house to going.
8. must and is I it go late.
9. to tonight have I study.
10. go when out the close you door.

Students are asked to guess the unfamiliar word by the meaning given for it.

1. An animal with a long neck is a giraffe.
2. A thing to take pictures with is a camera.
3. One who paints pictures is an artist.
4. A man who builds houses is a carpenter.
5. Food is kept cold in a refrigerator.
6. A thing to cut food with is a knife.
7. A woman who acts is an actress.
8. A large animal with a long trunk is an elephant.
9. A place where many children learn is a school.
10. A machine that can fly is an airplane.

In cases where two words or more may fit equally well, such as number five above, where the word "deep freeze" could be used, the teacher may draw attention to it, if necessary, and ask which of the two words the one given looks most like. In most cases, students will be able to note the difference.

After correcting the preceding three sets of exercises, the teacher will know if students have grasped the idea of using context clues effectively. If they have not, he should continue with similar exercises until he is satisfied with students' performance in this regard.

Follow-up

Ask students to turn to a page in a pre-selected book and read a certain page or certain pages, depending on the reading ability of each student. Utilizing the past three sections, building sight words, structural analysis,

and using context clues, students should be able to do a reasonably good job of reading the material they are assigned. The teacher should be careful to select material which is on each child's instructional level as frustration may start to build again. The building up of frustration is the very idea this program is trying to avoid.

Ask students to look through different stories or books and come up with ten words that they were able to recognize by using context clues.

Ask students to write ten sentences in which there is one unfamiliar word in each case, with the teacher assisting, if necessary, in this exercise. They are then asked to exchange sentences so that another student can try to guess each unfamiliar word as well as its meaning. This exercise is particularly good because it gives practice in the coding and decoding of more difficult words in context.

Reading Objective 4: Noting Details

This section will help students to note details in reading, with an evaluation to determine how well this objective was achieved.

Materials

SRA Rate Builder, Lab IIa. Blue 5.

SRA Rate Builder, Lab IIa. Olive 8.

SRA Rate Builder, Lab IIa. Green 11.

SRA Power Builder, Lab IIa. Olive 7, "Tiger Hunt in a Zoo."

Open Highways, Book 7. "The Crazy Mixed-Up School Teacher," pp. 122-124.

Readiness

Print the term "Noting Details" on the chalkboard and ask students to find it on their duplicated sheet for reading. Ask them to write it at the top of the next unused page in their reading exercise book, and ensure as much as possible that all students can read the phrase with understanding.

Ask students to recall the listening exercise, and the things that were done to illustrate the term "detail". If they remember the concept "detail" the teacher may move on to the materials for the lesson; if not, a few more exercises to illustrate the term "detail" may be used to reinforce the concept.

Duplicate a master sheet with simple pictures on it, for example, a boat, an apple, a banana, a cup, a pen, a book, etc. Ask students to look at these items for one minute and then they will be asked to remember as many of them as they can. Remind them that what they are doing is "noting details".

Ask them to close their eyes and recall as many details about the classroom as they can (e.g., two windows open, Jack's coat on the floor, one book on Mary's desk, etc.). Be sure to make the point that they have been asked to note "details" about the classroom. Remind them, as in the listening for

details section, that the details of a story serve as a form of building blocks to develop a foundation upon which to build higher levels of comprehension.

The Lesson

By this time, having done the sections "Building Up a Large Store of Sight Words", "Structural Analysis", and "Using Context Clues", students should be reading fairly well on their instructional level. The selections chosen should not present any great amount of difficulty as far as reading them is concerned. Two selections will be used to illustrate the idea of "Reading to Note Details", while three will be used in the evaluation, one for each of the three academic levels, low, medium, and high.

Ask students if they know any systematic way of looking for details in stories they read. It may be unlikely that any students will, although some may say that they have a good memory, and this is what helps them remember the details of what they read.

At this point, the teacher may write six words on the blackboard and ask students to copy them in their reading exercise book. The words are all questions and are as follows: Who? What? When? Where? Why? How? They may be elaborated on as follows:

Who?	Who are the people (characters) in the story?
------	---

What?	What thing or things are in the story, and what is happening in the story?
-------	--

- When? At what time does the story happen?
- Where? In what place or places is the story happening?
- Why? Why do the people in the story do as they do, or why do the events happen as they do?
- How? How much or how many? How do people do what they do, or how do events happen as they do?

The teacher may help students apply these six questions to the first demonstration selection, SRA Rate Builder, Blue 5. The story will need to be written on the blackboard or duplicated, preferably the latter, so that all students may follow the application of the questions. The students are asked to read the story keeping in mind the questions who, what, when, where, why and how?

After giving students ample time to read the story, the teacher may read it aloud also, for the benefit of any students still weak in the area of reading. Students are reminded to keep the six questions in mind as they look for the details of the story. The teacher may demonstrate on the chalkboard how the details of the story may be arranged around these six questions.

- Who? The story is about a kindly man named Mr. Brown and a boy named Billy.
- When? No specific time is given except that it is sometime in the recent past.
- Where? No specific place is given except that it is on a street in a city or town.
- What? Mr. Brown sees Billy trying to ring a doorbell.

Why? Since Billy cannot reach the doorbell,
Mr. Brown rings it for him.

How? Does not apply in this story.

After reviewing the questions and answers as they applied to the above story, the teacher should question individual students to try to determine if all of them have grasped the idea of using the six basic questions to note the details of a story. He should point out the facts that as a general rule these questions apply to most written or spoken work, but there are times when any one or more of them may not apply, as in the above case. Students are expected to use these six questions in noting details from this time forth.

The teacher may ask students to form into their groups of two and work on the second story on their own. They will, however, not be completely on their own as the teacher will circulate around the room giving help where necessary. The six questions should be written on the black-board to ensure that no one of them is forgotten. He should also remind them that all six questions may not apply in all cases.

After all groups have finished looking for the details asked for by the six questions, the teacher may put the answers on the board. In doing this, he should utilize student responses as much as possible.

Who? Farmers.

What? Insects, six-legged animals that eat farmers crops. Birds, frogs and fish eat insects.

Why? Farmers do not like insects because they eat his crops.

Where? On farms.

When? When crops are growing.

How? Does not apply in this story.

From student responses, the teacher will know if they have grasped the idea of using these six questions to find the details of a story. If some students still have not learned what to do, the teacher should pick more selections and stay with the lesson phase until all students know how to find the details in a story.

Evaluation

The evaluation for this lesson is done on three levels: the lower academic group will use SRA Lab IIa, Rate Builder, 11; the middle group will use SRA Lab IIa, Power Builder, 7 entitled "Tiger Hunt in a Zoo"; the higher group will use the selection "The Crazy Mixed-Up School Teacher" from the series Open Highways, Book 7.

If the teacher has taken enough time to see that all students know how to meet the requirements of this objective, and the right instructional reading levels are picked, students should not have any amount of difficulty in this evaluation.

Students are to work singly and are instructed to

select the details from the selection each one has. This time not even the basic questions are written on the board. Students are expected to know the questions and how to apply them to their story.

A review of each selection follows.

1. The lowest academic group (Rate Builder Green 11).

- Who? An Eskimo mailman.
- What? A dog team and sled on which he delivers the mail.
- Where? On an island near the Arctic Circle.
- When? For seven months of the year. From June through November he carries the mail in a skin boat.
- Why? The sea is frozen for seven months, open the other five, and the mail must get through.
- How? By dog team in the seven months of winter, and by boat in the remaining five months.

2. Middle academic level (Tiger Hunt in a Zoo).

- Who? Doctor Watson, a bird caretaker in a San Francisco Zoo, and other people who worked at the zoo.
- What? A tiger had escaped from his cage and could be very dangerous.
- When? The story does not say.
- Where? At the San Francisco Zoo.
- Why? The tiger needed to be herded back to his cage as people could be hurt badly or killed.
- How? By spraying water at the tiger and moving slowly and silently they got the tiger back in his cage.

3. Higher academic group (The Crazy Mixed-Up School Teacher)

- Who? Mr. Higgins, a teacher; members of the school board and the school students.
- What? The school had to be closed.
- Why? The students were so unruly that no teacher would come to that particular school.
- When? During a school term in the recent past.
- Where? Somewhere in the mountains of the United States; it is not stated specifically where.
- How? (was the situation brought under control)? Mr. Higgins threw a temper tantrum which frightened the students. He had no further trouble with them and he stayed there for twenty-one years.

By the way students have responded on this evaluation, the teacher will know whether or not more work needs to be done on the selection of details. If more work is indicated, he should choose more stories and stay with them until all students are proficient in this area.

Follow-up

Ask students to watch a particular show on television and apply the six basic questions to it. Discussion will take place about it on the next school day.

Ask students to read at least one news story in a newspaper and apply the same questions to it. Discussion may be allowed on these stories, as well as student criticism.

Ask students to apply these six basic questions to all their required reading; if they can successfully do this,

it will be a powerful aid to effective study. This ability, in itself, should make a significant positive difference to the academic success of each child.

Reading Objective 5: To Follow Instructions

This section will help students to follow instructions when reading, with an evaluation to determine their mastery of this objective.

Materials

The New Open Highway Series:

Level 2. More Power, "How to Care for a Goldfish", pp. 13-15.

Level 2. Moving Ahead, "Make a Bean Bag Game", pp. 102-105.

Level 1. Ready to Roll, "How to Make a Puppet", pp. 85-88.

Level 5. Discovering Treasure, "A Simple Telescope", pp. 166-167.

Level 7. Blasting Off, "How to Make a Terrarium", pp. 202-205.

Readiness

Print the phrase "Reading: To Follow Instructions" in large letters on the chalkboard and ask students to find it on their duplicated sheet for reading. Ask them to copy it at the top of the next unused page of their reading exercise book. Ensure as much as possible that all students can read the phrase with understanding.

Ask students what they remember about carrying out

instructions from objective 2 in listening. A variety of instructional exercises might be attempted to ensure an understanding of this concept.

Ask students to give instructions to other students, starting with one instruction, then two, three, four, carrying on until forgetting occurs. As an example, the first two students may be Bill and Tina. Bill might say, "Tina, close the window." After this has been done, Bill will add one more instruction, "Tina, open the window and close the door." If no forgetting has occurred, Bill may continue, "Tina, close the window, open the door, and bring me that stapler on the teacher's desk." This process continues, adding one more instruction each time, until either Bill or Tina forgets. The one who forgets first is "out". If Bill is the one who has forgotten first, then another student is chosen, but this time Tina does the instructing. This continues until all students have had a chance to play in the game. This is an enjoyable game and an excellent memory training technique, as well as being reinforcement for the concept of "carrying out instructions".

The teacher should continue this, or similar exercises, until all students have grasped the present concept.

The Lesson

The two selections for this lesson will be "How to Care for a Goldfish", and "Make A Bean Bag Game". Primarily they will be demonstration exercises.

The teacher should take the first selection "How to Care for a Goldfish" and demonstrate the lesson either by duplicating it from a master copy or by writing it on the blackboard. The teacher should stress the fact that since the topic is "How to Care for a Goldfish", what is being looked for are the instructions by which this may be done.

Students should be asked to copy in their exercise books, the sample lesson which may be as follows:

How to Care for a Goldfish

The instructions for caring for goldfish are:

1. Get a big bowl with a big opening at the top.
2. Put water in the bowl and let it stand for two or three days.
3. Put a water plant in the bowl, and place the bowl where it will get a little sunlight each day.
4. Get a small goldfish and put it in the bowl, but do not touch the goldfish with your hands.
5. Feed the goldfish one small pinch of fishfood a day.
6. Change the water in the bowl every three days.
7. Always use water that has stood two or three days.

When the students have finished copying the above instructions, the teacher should verbally go over them again, ensuring that students understand the major concept, that the points listed were "instructions" that would need to be carefully followed if they were to really buy a goldfish. It is possible that some student may want to buy a goldfish

following this lesson. If this is so, the following of the rules may take the form of a practical demonstration.

For the next selection, "Make a Bean Bag Game", the students may be asked to form into their groups of two, and although the teacher may set up the organizational structure for the lesson, he should try to draw as many of the instructions as possible from the students. The teacher may explain that this selection, "Make a Bean Bag Game", is divided into four parts, and there are a number of points under each part. He may write these parts on the chalkboard: materials, making the bean bag, making the game board, and playing the game.

1. Materials needed

- a. a sock
- b. a ruler
- c. a crayon or felt pen
- d.
- e.
- f.
- g.
- h.
- i.

The teacher should now try to get students to come up with the rest of the materials. He may help as needed.

2. Making the bean bag.

- a. Draw a line four inches from the toe of the sock.
- b. Cut along the line.
- c.
- d.
- e.

The same procedure should be followed again, with the

teacher trying to draw as many of the instructions as possible from the students.

3. Making the game board.

- a. Draw big circle in the middle of the card-board.
- b.
- c.
- d.

Again, students are asked to come up with the remaining three instructions in this part.

4. Playing the game.

- a. Hang up the game board.
- b.
- c.
- d.
- e.

Judging by how well students have filled in the remaining materials or instructions, the teacher will know whether or not more work is needed on the lesson part. If more work is indicated he should select other stories which contain instructions, and stay with them until he is satisfied with the performance of all students in this area.

Evaluation

For the evaluation the students should be asked to form into their three broad academic groups of lower, middle, and higher achieving students. The three selections respectively will be "How to Make a Puppet", "A Simple Telescope", and "How to Make a Terrarium".

The teacher may divide the chalkboard into three

sections, one for each selection, and under each may be written the words "Materials" and "Instructions". Students are asked to write the title of their selection at the top of the next unused page in their reading notebook as well as the words "Materials" and "Instructions".

Students are now asked to show that they are able to read to follow instructions presented in a selection. In certain cases the groups of two may have to be used to facilitate the writing of the answers. Following the format presented in the teaching section, the students are to read the selection and develop a detailed list of the materials needed and the specific instructions to follow in order to make either the puppet, telescope or terrarium. An extension of the evaluation might include certain students describing to the whole class the procedure necessary for the development of one of the three aforementioned items. The three groups might be allowed time in class to undertake the construction of a puppet, telescope, or terrarium.

Follow-up

The teacher should arrange with the industrial arts and home economics teachers that they ask these students to do a project from a set of written instructions. The students may need help with the reading in some cases, but the end result would be something tangible, and this, in itself, is powerful motivation for learning.

Ask students to bring to class any projects they may

have done at home such as models, woodwork, artwork, and explain to the rest of the class what instructions they followed to create the finished product. Other members of the class may wish to follow the instructions to make similar projects.

A booklet, compiled of file cards, might be developed by the class, detailing the necessary instructions to follow in the development of some creative product.

Reading Objective 6: To Compare and Contrast

This section will teach students to compare and contrast specific details or situations, with an evaluation to determine their mastery of this objective.

Materials

SRA Lab IIa. Rate Builder, Orange 1, "Venice".

The New Open Highways. Level 3, Splendid Journey, "A Story From Old Hawaii", pp. 42-50.

SRA Lab IIa. Rate Builder, Green 11, "Eskimo Mailman".

SRA Lab IIa. Power Builder, Orange 8, "Come to Our Potlatch".

The New Open Highways. Level 7, Blasting Off, "Ghost of the Lagoon", pp. 279-291.

Readiness

Print the phrase "Reading: To Compare and Contrast" in large letters on the chalkboard, and ask students to find it on their duplicated sheet for reading. Ask them to write it at the top of the next unused page of their reading

exercise book and ensure as much as possible that all students can read the phrase with understanding.

The teacher should also review the past reading objectives, both for students' ability to read the phrases and an understanding of the concepts involved.

This lesson in reading ties in with objective 3 in listening (Listening to Compare and Contrast). Ask students what they remember about comparing and contrasting people who live quite differently than they do, which was introduced in the lesson on listening. Ask students to recall the procedure utilized in comparing and contrasting a specific situation.

The Lesson

It needs to be noted that the comparing and contrasting to be taught is with the students' own lives, and that the work is on a literal level.

The teacher may illustrate how the lesson is to be done by either writing it on the chalkboard or duplicating it from a master sheet. In either case, students are asked to copy it in their reading exercise book.

The first selection is entitled "Venice", and the comparison and contrasting will be with the students' home town.

The teacher may use a number of major headings on which the comparing and contrasting will be based, for example:

1. Persons

- a. physical features
- b. attributes and behavior

2. Places

- a. physical features
- b. distinguishing or unique geographic features

3. Things

- a. clothes
- b. means of transportation
- c. food

The first demonstration lesson is entitled "Venice"

and the teacher may outline it as follows:

1. Persons

Not enough information given on which to base comparison or contrast.

2. Places

- a. Venice, Italy is built on a very flat, very wet section of land, whereas St. John's is built on a very hilly region.
- b. A unique feature about Venice is that many of their thoroughfares are canals; this is not so at all in St. John's.

3. Things

- a.
- b. People travel by boat very much to get from one part of Venice to another; this is not so in St. John's where the major means of transportation is by motor vehicle, although boat travel is important.

The next demonstration lesson is entitled "A Story from Old Hawaii", but this time the teacher should try to draw as many of the points of comparison or contrast as possible from the students.

A Story from Old Hawaii

1. Persons

- a. Physical features: The people in Old Hawaii are pictured in the illustrations as being dark skinned, whereas in Newfoundland, most people are white.
- b. Attitudes and behavior: The boy Paka'a wanted to do the same work as the grown ups but the grown ups were afraid for Paka'a's safety alone on the water. In Newfoundland many young people do not want to do the same work as their elders, but there is the same concern of the older people for the safety of the young.

When Paka'a invented a sail, the older people were proud of him and used his invention; this would not be much different here, or anywhere else.

2. Places

- a. Hawaii is an island; so is Newfoundland. The climate of Hawaii is very warm; in Newfoundland there is a great variety of climate from very cold to fairly warm.

On the next point "things" the teacher should try to draw as many points of comparison and contrast as possible from the students. Some of these points may be:

3. Things

- a. Warm clothing is not necessary in Old Hawaii; it is often very necessary in Newfoundland.
- b. The fishermen fished from canoes which they at first paddled and later sailed; in Newfoundland most fishing is done from motor powered crafts ranging from very small boats to large deep sea trawlers.
- c. Fishing is important in Old Hawaii; it is also very important in Newfoundland.

Judging by student responses, the teacher should have

a good idea whether or not students have grasped the concept of comparing and contrasting specific details or situations. If more work is indicated he should pick more examples of his own, and continue with the lesson until all students have demonstrated a mastery of this objective.

Evaluation

For the evaluation, the students should be asked to form into their three broad academic groups of lower, middle, and higher achieving students. The three selections respectively will be "Eskimo Mailman", "Come to Our Potlatch", and "Ghost of the Lagoon".

The teacher may write the three main headings on the chalkboard and ask students to copy them in their reading exercise books. The points of comparison are persons, places and things, but the students will be asked to fill all the actual points of comparison and contrast under each heading. Some student groups of two may be necessary to facilitate the writing of the answers.

When students have finished their assigned work, the teacher will know whether or not they have grasped the idea of comparing and contrasting specific details or situations. If more work is necessary, the teacher should use more selections until he is satisfied with students' performance in this area.

Follow-up

Ask students to try to find stories about people in other lands, and using the points given in the lesson, to compare and contrast these people's lives with their own. Ask them to share their experiences with the rest of the class.

The teacher should be watching for documentaries about other lands on television and ask students to watch them. Discussion on each one may be held on the next class day, and the points of comparison and contrast with their own land be listed on the board. Students should be asked to copy these points.

Ask people who have travelled widely around the world to come in and speak to the class. Allow time for students to question the speaker. After the talk and questioning is over, the points of comparison and contrast may be listed on the board and the students asked to copy them.

Reading Objective 7: To Recall Sequence of Events

This section will teach students to follow sequence of events in reading, with an evaluation to determine their mastery of this objective.

Materials

SRA Lab IIa. Rate Builder, Aqua 1.

SRA Lab IIa. Power Builder, Blue 5, "The Climb to the Atom Bomb".

SRA Lab IIa. Rate Builder, Blue 4.

The New Open Highways. Level 4, Seeking Adventure,
"A True Tale", pp. 64-66.

The New Open Highways. Level 4, Seeking Adventure,
"Balloon Flight", pp. 284-287.

Readiness

Print the term "Reading: To Recall Sequence of Events" on the chalkboard and ask students to find it on their duplicated sheet for reading. Ask them to write it at the top of the next unused page in their reading exercise books and ensure as much as possible that all students can read the phrase with understanding.

Ask students what they remember about "sequence of events" from the listening exercise of the same name. Remind them of the exercise they did about remembering the things they saw on the way to school, putting first things first. Ask them to try the same exercise again for this particular day, reminding them that when they tell about events in the order of which they happened, they are following "sequence of events".

Ask students about any recent television drama they may have seen. Ask them if the events could have been changed around? What would have happened had the events in the middle of the drama been placed at the beginning? Could the order of events have been mixed up and the story still have made sense? Although there are techniques whereby events may be out of place, e.g. flashback, there is generally a sequence of events in which one thing leads to the other all

the way through. This is "sequence".

The Lesson

The teacher may demonstrate the following lesson either on the chalkboard or on duplicated sheets, and ask the students to copy it in their reading exercise books. He may classify the major and minor events and then help students to recall them in sequence. The first example is about James Bozart, a newsboy. A sample lesson may be as follows: The major events will form the main heading while the minor events will be the sub-headings.

1. James Bozart was counting his day's newspaper money.
2. He found a split nickel:
 - a. He became angry;
 - b. He wondered if someone had tried to cheat him;
 - c. He looked sadly at the coin;
 - d. He saw that the coin was hollow.
3. He saw there was something wedged inside the coin:
 - a. He poked it out with a pencil;
 - b. Out fell a strip of microfilm.
4. James took the microfilm to the police:
 - a. The police gave it to the FBI.
5. The microfilm gave the FBI information which led them to crack an international spy ring.
6. The not-so-clever spy had used the special nickel to pay for a paper.

The teacher may now help the students to summarize the information in sequential order so that it may more easily

be remembered. This may be done on the chalkboard. The teacher may explain that the summary will include the major events and the last of the minor events in each case. Referring to the events, the teacher may summarize the story as follows:

When James Bozart, a newsboy, was counting his paper money he found a split nickel which was hollow. He saw something inside the coin which was a piece of microfilm. He took the microfilm to the police, who gave it to the FBI. The microfilm helped break an international spy ring. A careless spy had mistakenly given up evidence.

It is necessary to do a summary at this point because it teaches students to put the major events and some of the minor events in sequence for easier recall. The teacher may also explain that the major events are the important happenings in a story whereas the minor events are the supporting or back-up details to the major events. Many of the minor events may be omitted when doing a summary; this is not so for the major events which must be included.

The second selection is entitled "The Climb to the Atom Bomb", and in this case the teacher should draw as many points as possible, both major and minor. He may set up the organizational structure as follows:

1. Major event:
 - a. Minor event;
 - b.
 - c.

Although the teacher will give help all the way through this exercise, he will try to draw more and more

points from the students as they progress through the lesson.

The Climb to the Atom Bomb

1. An atom bomb was set to be exploded:
 - a. The countdown began.
2. The bomb failed to explode.
 - a. Something had gone wrong but no one knew what;
 - b. Some men would have to go and take the bomb apart;
 - c.
3. Three men were picked for the job of dismantling the bomb:
 - a. They rode by car to the tower;
 - b. They climbed the 500 foot tower to the room where the bomb was;
 - c. They entered the room;
 - d.
 - e.
4. They pulled the wires so that the bomb was now safe:
 - a.
 - b.

The teacher should check to see how accurately students were able to fill in the sub-headings that were left out. If certain students were unable to complete the exercise, he should give further practice until all students are able to find and list the major and minor points. Some of the groups of two may be necessary to facilitate the latter point.

When the teacher is satisfied with students' behavior in this lesson, he should proceed to synthesize the points into a summary for easier recall. The students should be asked to help as much as possible, utilizing the method as set up

in the first demonstration lesson (i.e., using the major points and the last of the minor points in each case).

The Climb to the Atom Bomb (Summary)

An atom bomb was set to be exploded, but at the end of the countdown, nothing happened, the bomb failed to explode. Some men would have to go and disarm the bomb. Three men were picked. They climbed the 500 foot tower and began to work on the bomb which might explode at any time. Finally they pulled out the wires which made the bomb safe. They realized how lucky they had been.

If the students have shown they were able to select the major and minor points, there is every reason to believe they can adequately do a summary although slight variations in it may occur among students.

If the teacher is satisfied with students' performance in this lesson, he should proceed to the evaluation; if not, he should select more exercises and continue with them until all students have mastered this objective.

Evaluation

For this evaluation, students should form into their three broad academic groups of lower, middle, and higher achieving students. A number of the groups of two may be necessary to facilitate the writing of this assignment. The three selections respectively are SRA Lab IIa, Rate Builder, Blue 4 (untitled), "A True Tale" and "Balloon Flight".

Other than setting up the organizational structure for the assignment, the students will be expected to complete this exercise on their own. The organizational structure will follow the same format as presented in the lesson.

The format of the assignment will be as follows:

1. Major event:
 - a. Minor event;
 - b.
 - c.
2. Major event:
 - a. Minor event;

After all the major and minor events have been selected, the students are instructed to utilize them in the formation of a summary of the selection. The same pattern as was used in the lesson will apply to this exercise as well.

Follow-up

The teacher may take any short story or selection and rearrange the sentences so that no sentence logically follows another. First, he should ask students to read it and tell him what is wrong with it. Having just done the lesson on sequence, students should easily see that the sequence of events is wrong, consequently, the story does not make sense. They should then be asked to put the events in proper order so that the story does make sense.

Ask students to write a short story or paragraph, and then change the order of the sentences around and ask another person in their academic group to correct the sequence.

Ask them to tell stories of events that have happened to them, reminding them of the importance of proper sequence. Other students are to be listening for lack of sequence in each story being told and to remind the speaker

when it occurs. Peer pressure can be a powerful motivating influence.

Reading Objective 8: To Determine Cause and Effect Relationships

This section will teach students to determine cause and effect relationships in reading, with an evaluation to check students' mastery of this objective.

Materials

SRA Lab IIa. Rate Builder, Blue 4.

SRA Lab IIa. Power Builder, Olive 3, "Blind Boy of Pompeii".

SRA Lab IIa. Rate Builder, Blue 7.

SRA Lab IIa. Power Builder, Orange 11, "Simba, the Pet Lion".

The New Open Highways. Level 4, Seeking Adventure, "A Dish You Can Eat", pp. 56-58.

Readiness

Print the phrase "Reading: To Determine Cause and Effect Relationships" on the chalkboard and ask students to find it on their duplicated sheet for reading. Ask them to write it at the top of the next unused page in their reading notebook and ensure as much as possible that all students can read the phrase with understanding.

Since students have already done "cause and effect relationships" in the listening portion of this study, they should have a good idea of how to look for it in reading. The teacher should question them regarding the retention of

concepts from the previous "cause and effect" section. Even if some students remember the concept well, the teacher should still demonstrate the basic principle of "cause and effect".

The teacher may use the chalkboard to illustrate the fact that a story has a number of events (recall "sequence of events" from last section) and that each event has at least one cause and one effect; sometimes there may be several causes and effects for each event. The principle may be demonstrated as follows:

cause ———> event ———> effect.

This may be illustrated further by taking a real event and showing the cause and effect:

Event: A house burned down;

Cause: faulty wiring;

Effect: A family was left homeless.

This may be put into a sentence as follows:

Faulty wiring caused a house to burn down which left a family homeless.

An example of multiple causes and events may be as follows:

Event: A ship sank:

Causes: bad weather, poor visibility with winds up to sixty miles an hour;
 one of the ship's engines not working properly;
 a faulty compass;
 an inexperienced navigator.

Effects: Four crew members were drowned;
The navigator lost his licence as a ship's
navigator;
A valuable cargo was lost.

The Lesson

The first selection is from SRA Lab IIa, Rate Builder, Blue 4 (untitled) and may be fully illustrated on the chalk-board using the following format:

1. Event
 - a. Cause or causes:
 - 1.
 - 2.
 - 3.
 - b. Effect or effects:
 - 1.
 - 2.
 - 3.
2. Event
 - a. Cause or causes:
 - 1.
 - 2.
 - 3.
 - b. Effect or effects:
 - 1.
 - 2.
 - 3.

When this format is applied to the first selection, the events, causes and effects will be listed as follows:

1. Event: A bird fell out of its nest.
 - a. Cause: not stated although it may have been too young to fly.
 - b. Effects:

1. A boy found it and took it home;
 2. He fed it every day.
2. Event: Soon it was well again.
 - a. Cause:
 1. It had been fed and treated well.
 - b. Effect:
 1. It could fly again.
3. Event: The bird stayed at the boy's house.
 - a. Cause: It had been well fed and treated.
 - b. Effects:
 1. The boy took the bird to school with him;
 2. The boys and girls at school liked the little bird.

The second selection is entitled "Blind Boy of Pompeii" and will follow the same organizational format of events, causes, and effects as in the first selection. This time the teacher will fill in some of each division but he will try to draw increasingly more answers from the students as he progresses through the lesson.

1. Event: An old volcano started to erupt.
 - a. Cause: not given in the story.
 - b. Effect:
 1. It happened during the night so people were sleeping, not worrying about the volcano because they thought it was burnt out.
2. Event: Marc's dog, Bobo, smelled smoke; Marc was sleeping.
 - a. Cause
 1. The smoke was coming from the erupting volcano.

- b. Effect:
 - 1. The dog woke Marc.
- 3. Event: Marc woke and realized what was happening.
 - a. Cause:
 - 1. He could hear the volcano and smell the smoke.
 - b. Effect:
 - 1.
- 4. Event: Bobo led Marc away towards safety.
 - a. Cause:
 - 1.
 - b. Effect:
 - 1.
- 5. Event:
 - a. Cause:
 - 1.
 - b. Effect:
 - 1.

If students have demonstrated their ability to select events, causes, and effects in the previous exercise, the teacher may proceed to the evaluation; if not, then he should select more exercises and practice further until all students are able to master this objective.

Evaluation

For the evaluation, students should be asked to form into their three broad academic groups of lower, middle, and

higher achieving students. In certain cases, groups of two may be utilized to facilitate the writing of answers.

The three selections respectively for this evaluation are SRA Rate Builder, Blue 7 (untitled), "Simba, the Pet Lion" and "A Dish You Can Eat".

Other than setting up the organizational structure for this assignment, the teacher will expect students to fill in all the details of events, causes and effects. The format will be the same as that used in the lesson. The teacher may write on the board as follows:

1. Event:

a. Causes:

- 1.
- 2.

b. Effects:

- 1.
- 2.

2. Event:

a. Cause:

- 1.

b. Effects:

- 1.
- 2.

Depending on how well students have completed this evaluation, the teacher will know whether or not more work is needed on this objective. If more work is indicated he should select more examples of his own and proceed in the same manner until all students have mastered this objective.

Follow-up

Ask students to listen to a particular newscast on television or radio and be prepared to talk about the major events and their causes and effects. Some examples may be an accident on the highway caused by a drunken driver, and two people were killed; the Boat People of South-East Asia, why they are taking risks in unsafe boats, and what may lie ahead for them.

Ask them to write in their reading notebooks about events that have happened to them personally, along with the causes and effects of each event. Ask them to keep a written record of such events each day for the duration of this section. Instruct them to be prepared to talk in class about the events, causes, and effects. This may be done in small group situations, with one group carrying on discussion while other groups write their experiences.

Ask students if they know of any events that have no cause or effect. These may be difficult to find but it may still make for interesting, and perhaps enlightening discussion.

Reading Objective 9: To Read for Main Idea or Ideas

This section will teach students to read for the main idea or ideas in a selection with an evaluation to determine their mastery of this evaluation.

Materials

SRA Lab IIa. Rate Builder, Orange 2.

SRA Lab IIa. Power Builder, Orange 12, "Stubborn Captain Cook".

SRA Lab IIa. Rate Builder, Blue 3.

SRA Lab IIa. Power Builder, Brown 4, "Around the World in Three Years",

The New Open Highways. Level 5, Discovering Treasure. "Pirates of Yesterday--Jean Lafitte", pp. 46-47.

Readiness

Print the phrase "To Read for Main Idea or Ideas" in large letters on the chalkboard and ask students to find it on their duplicated sheet for reading. Ask them to write the phrase at the top of the next unused page of their reading notebook and ensure as much as possible that all students can read it with understanding.

Ask students what they remember about "main idea" from the listening objective of the same topic. There should be a fair amount of retention due to the fact that both listening and reading are examples of the receptive language arts. It would be wise for the teacher to request examples from the students of main ideas and how they are obtained. The teacher might ask students what television programs they watched last night. Then ask what was the main idea of the program. If students can't sum up the main idea, they may tell what the program was all about and the teacher might crystallize it into a main idea. The teacher should use as

many television programs or other situations as is necessary to illustrate the concept of "main idea".

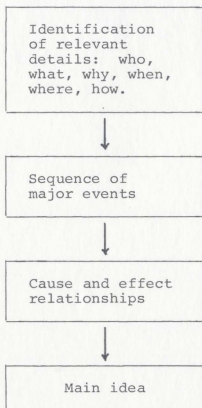
The teacher might point out to students that newspaper headlines are indicators of the main idea of an article. It would be a good idea to have a supply of newspapers to show students exactly what is meant by this. One headline might say, "Major Fire Destroys Five Downtown Businesses". The teacher may ask, "Do you think this story is about a fishing boat that sank?" If the students reply in the negative, the teacher may ask how they know, and their answers will have to illustrate what the main idea might be in terms of the headline.

After looking at a number of newspaper stories, it is a good idea to take certain articles from newspapers with the headline removed. After students have read the stories, the teacher might say, "What headlines would be appropriate for these stories?" These are good exercises to practice determining the main idea. The teacher should continue with exercises like these above until he feels reasonably certain that all students can understand and apply the concept of "finding the main idea".

The Lesson

In order to do this lesson, the teacher should conduct a guided review of the reading sections "Noting Details", "Sequence of Events" and "Cause and Effect Relationships" as they have a direct bearing on the present objective.

The format of this lesson will be as follows:



The first selection is from SRA Lab IIa, Rate Builder, Orange 2 (untitled) and when the above format is applied to it the following pattern emerges:

1. Identification of relevant details:

- a. What? A clay bowl.
- b. How? How the clay bowl is made.

The others points of detail: who, why, when and where do not apply in this case.

2. Sequence of events:

- a. Start with soft wet clay;
- b. Pat it into the shape of a bowl;

- c. Paint the bowl while it is still wet;
 - d. The bowl is baked in a special oven;
 - e. The clay becomes hard and dry.
3. Cause and effect:
- a. Event: The bowl is baked in a special oven.
 - b. Cause: The clay is shaped, wet, soft and painted.
 - c. Effect: The clay hardens into a bowl of the shape, size and color desired.

When the preceding three points are examined for a common theme running through them, it should not be too difficult to see that the main idea is "how to make a clay bowl".

The next selection is entitled "Stubborn Captain Cook", and the teacher should try to draw increasingly more answers from the students as he progresses through this lesson.

1. Identification of relevant details:
- a. Who? Captain James Cook, his sailors and sailors generally at that time.
 - b. What? Scurvy--a serious, sometimes fatal disease among sailors at that time.
 - c. Why? Captain Cook thought that scurvy was caused by an inadequate diet at sea.
 - d. When? In the year 1768 in particular, although the disease stretched back many years.
 - e. Where? At sea generally; on board Captain Cook's ship "Endeavour" in particular, on a voyage from England to Tahiti and back, which would take them all the way around the world.

- f. How? Captain Cook found a cure for scurvy by adding fruit and vegetables to sailors' diet at sea.

2. Sequence of events:

- a. Scurvy was a serious disease, sometimes fatal, among early sailors.
- b. Captain James Cook thought he knew a way to cure scurvy but he wasn't sure. He thought that scurvy among sailors was caused by an inadequate diet while at sea.
- c. On a voyage from England to Tahiti and back in the year 1768 he included . . .
- d. The ship sailed right around the world and . . .
- e.

3. Cause and effect:

- a. Event:
 1. Sailors feared scurvy, a serious, sometimes fatal disease suffered while at sea.
- b. Cause:
 1. The cause of scurvy was suspected by Captain James Cook to be an inadequate diet while at sea.
- c. Effect:
 1. Sailors became very sick with scurvy and some died;
 2. Sailors feared scurvy more than they feared pirates;
 3. Captain James Cook
- a. Event:
 1. Captain James Cook found . . .
- b. Cause:
 1. Ill health and
- c. Effects:
 - 1.
 - 2.

After all the points of the previous exercise have been filled in, the teacher will help students to find a common thread or idea running through them all.

By guiding the discussion through the "Details", "Sequence of Events" and "Cause and Effect Relationships", the teacher should have little difficulty in getting the students to see that the word "scurvy" is very prominent. Once this is established, the next logical question is, "What change occurred in the story as far as scurvy is concerned?" Students should be able to answer this question easily: Scurvy, a serious disease among sailors at sea, was cured by including fruit and vegetables in their diet.

Evaluation

For this evaluation, students should be asked to form into their three broad academic groups of lower, middle, and high achieving students. The three selections to be used respectively are SRA Lab IIa, Rate Builder, Blue 3 (untitled), "Around the World in Three Years" and "Pirates of Yesterday--Jean Lafitte".

Students will be instructed to follow the same format in the evaluation as was used in the lesson (i.e., from "Details" to "Sequence of Major Events" to "Cause and Effect Relationships" all leading to the Main Idea or Common Theme).

From students' written responses the teacher will know whether or not all students have grasped the idea of finding the main idea of a selection. If more work is indicated, the

teacher should select more stories and continue with them until he is satisfied with the behavior of all students in this objective.

Follow-up

Ask students to Prepare short talks on subjects of their choice to be presented in front of the class. They are instructed to present the talk without giving its title. The other students are to try to ascertain the main idea of each talk.

Ask students to watch a certain documentary film on television and be prepared to discuss the film in class relative to its main idea. As much as possible, the teacher should let students direct the discussion, only interfering if the discussion gets off the track.

Ask students to be looking for the main ideas in whatever they read. Remind them that this is an effective way to remember past selections they have done. It might be a good idea for the teacher to conduct a review of some of the selections in past objectives for the purpose of finding the main ideas in them. When students come to understand that "main ideas" help them to better remember past material studied, it should prove to be a powerful motivating factor for further learning.

Reading Objective 10: To Predict Outcomes

This section will teach students to read to predict outcomes with an evaluation to determine their mastery of this objective.

Materials

SRA Lab IIa. Rate Builder, Blue 4.

SRA Lab IIa. Power Builder, Olive 3, "Blind Boy of Pompeii."

SRA Lab IIa. Rate Builder, Blue 7.

SRA Lab IIa. Power Builder, Blue 3, "Blackbeard the Pirate."

The New Open Highways. Level 6, Exploring Afar, "The King and the Cats."

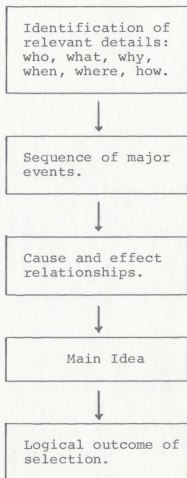
Readiness

Print the phrase "Reading: To Predict Outcomes", in large letters on the chalkboard and ask students to find it on their duplicated sheet for reading. Ask them to copy it at the top of the next unused page in their reading exercise book. Ensure as much as possible that all students can read the phrase with understanding.

Ask students if they know what the term "reading to predict outcomes" means. They may remember the concept from the listening objective of the same name. The teacher should crystallize what has been said into a short definition of the term, for example, "predicting outcomes" means to utilize the relevant details, sequence of major events, cause and effect relations and the main idea to come up with a logical ending

to the selection being read. A diagram of this procedure is shown below.

Since students have followed this same procedure in the previous objective, it is a matter now of carrying it one step further--to predicting how a selection will end.



The Lesson

The first selection to which the foregoing procedure may be applied is from SRA Lab IIa, Rate Builder, Blue 4

(untitled).

The relevant details are:

Who? A boy who found a bird that had fallen from its nest.

What? The boy took the bird home and nursed it back to health.

How? The boy nursed it back to health by feeding it every day.

The sequence of major events is:

1. A little bird fell from its nest.
2. A boy found it and took it to his home.
3. He fed the bird every day.
4. The bird became well again.

To give more of the events would be to give away the ending and there would be nothing to predict.

The cause and effect relationships are:

Event: A bird fell from a nest.

Cause: It was little and could not fly.

Effect: A boy found it and took it home with him.

Event: The bird became well again.

Cause: The boy fed it every day.

Effect: To give the effect would be to give away the ending as in the previous case.

Main idea:

It might be a good idea to ask students what they think the main idea of this selection is, as far as we have gone. Since they have already covered this concept, they will

know that the main idea has something to do with the boy and how well he treated a little bird he had found.

The only part of this selection that has not been dealt with is how the story turns out, which has been left out intentionally because it is now time to demonstrate how to predict the outcome. It might be a good idea for the teacher to ask the students what they think the ending of this story might be like. It will probably be necessary for the teacher to point out that the details, the events, the cause and effect relationships and the main idea all point to the fact that a boy found a little bird that had fallen from its nest, he took it home, fed it, and treated it well. What is likely to be the logical outcome of this situation? It should not be difficult to predict that the bird would want to stay at the boy's home, and a reading of the selection to the end will show that this is exactly what happened.

The next demonstration selected is entitled "Blind Boy of Pompeii", and the teacher will expect the students to contribute increasingly more as he progresses through this lesson.

The relevant details are:

Who? Marc, a blind boy who lived in the ancient city of Pompeii.

What? The eruption of a volcano which would destroy the city.

When? Many hundreds of years ago.

Where? The City of Pompeii, in what is now Italy.

How? To answer this question would be to give away the ending of the story.

The major sequence of events is:

1. A volcano, thought to be burned out, erupted.
2. Bobo, a dog, smelled the smoke, woke his master, Marc, who was a blind boy.
3. The boy knew what was happening.
4. The dog led the boy through the streets of Pompeii.

To list more events would also give away the ending, leaving the students with nothing to predict.

The cause and effect relationships are:

Event: Eruption of a volcano thought to be burned out.

Effect: The town of Pompeii is in imminent danger of destruction.

Event: Marc woke up and realized what was happening.

Cause: His dog smelled the smoke and woke Marc.

Effect: Marc knew he was in danger, but he was blind, so how could he escape?

To go any further with the cause and effect relationships would give away the ending.

The teacher should ask students what they think the main idea of this selection is as far as they have read. It should not be very difficult for them to predict that the dog leads the boy to safety. A reading of this story to the end will show that the dog leads the boy to the seashore where boats are waiting to take people to safety.

Evaluation

For this evaluation the students will be asked to form into their three broad academic groups of lower, middle, and higher achieving students. The three selections respectively will be SRA Lab IIa, Rate Builder, Blue 7 (untitled), "Blackbeard the Pirate" and "The King and the Cats". In the first selection the students are instructed to read as far as the end of the first paragraph and then, using the procedure laid down in the lesson, to predict the outcome of the story. The middle group, reading "Blackbeard the Pirate", is instructed to read as far as the end of paragraph 9. The higher group, with "The King and the Cats", is asked to read as far as the end of the second last paragraph of the story. Each group is then asked to predict the end of the story, writing their predicted outcome in their reading exercise books. Some groups of two may be necessary in order to facilitate the writing of the answers.

When students have completed their writing, the teacher will know if they have all grasped the concept of "predicting outcomes". If they have not, he should select more stories and stay with this objective until he is satisfied with the behavior of all students in this regard.

Follow-up

The teacher should select films with story content, and after previewing them, he should have the students view them, stopping each film in a place in which the ending may

take any number of directions. The students are asked to follow the same procedure as before to predict the outcome of each film.

Students should be asked to bring to school any stories they have read, and read them to the class as far as the turning point of the action; the other students are asked to follow the laid down procedure and predict the outcomes. This is a good exercise because it places students in positions where they know something the other students and the teacher might not know about.

Reading Objective 11: To Use a Dictionary

This section will help students to look up meanings of words in a dictionary with an evaluation to determine their mastery of this objective.

Materials

Enough copies of a standard school dictionary (e.g., Canadian Junior Dictionary) for each student.

Readiness

Print the phrase "Reading: To Use a Dictionary" in large letters on the chalkboard and ask students to find it on their duplicated sheet for reading. Insofar as it is possible, try to make sure that all students can read the phrase with understanding.

Ask students if they know how to look up meanings of words in a dictionary. If some students know, ask them to

find the meaning of certain words and read the meanings to the class. Sample words may be scholar, zodiac, prime, or words of their own choosing. Ask them why it is important to be able to look up word meanings. Most students will be aware of the importance of doing this. They should realize that a dictionary is of no value unless a person knows how to use it effectively. Consequently, a teacher must make the teaching of this skill a formal part of the reading program for educable mentally retarded students.

The first exercise will consist of word lists to be put in alphabetical order. The first list will contain words with different initial letters. The teacher should explain that words are put in alphabetical order, judging by the first letter in each case, such that a word beginning with A comes before one beginning with B, and so on through to Z, providing that no two words start with the same letter.

A list using all the letters of the alphabet initially follows and students are asked to put the words in alphabetical order:

open	zebra	season	toast	rapid
cash	illness	baby	mother	keep
union	winter	eating	vest	neither
last	art	xerox	quick	head
dinner	just	good	year	father
				pan

The next list will be a shorter one, in which some of the letters of the alphabet are not included as initial letters.

kettle	rally	velvet
apple	dolphin	main
woman	tomato	bark
pain	zoo	yeast
Fred	history	Jim

When students have demonstrated their ability to put words in alphabetical order by the initial letter, the next step is to use words in which the second letter must be used. A sample list follows:

apple	Fred	men	pool
art	fool	my	pray
act	fight	Mary	play
axe	fly	must	pest
abate	feel	moon	pay

After students have demonstrated their ability to use the second letter of words as a means of alphabetizing, a more complicated list may be given in which students have to arrange the words by both the first and second letters.

this	elephant	window	able	jest
deer	zebra	at	use	high
lost	queen	last	tag	tug
act	wet	vase	door	man
open	heel	fight	zoo	wool
nor	just	near	vest	ear

When the teacher is satisfied with students' performance using the first and second letters of words to alphabetize, he may take the exercise one step further, using the third letter.

brown	clown	fly	motor
bread	clerk	flown	moist
brute	cluster	fled	money
Briton	clip	flat	modern
brave	class	flute	more

When students have demonstrated their ability to use the third letter of words as a means of alphabetizing, they

may be given a more complicated list in which they are asked to arrange the words by the first, second, and third letters.

A sample list follows:

tea	abroad	able	red	cluster
clipper	pace	ten	bed	jug
ray	door	Fred	about	good
yes	hood	very	head	yet
just	late	label	tee	cloud
eating	year	fly	play	lace

When the teacher is satisfied with students' performance in arranging words in alphabetical order, he may begin exercises in which students start to use a dictionary effectively.

The Lesson

Before beginning to look up meanings of words in a dictionary, it is a good idea to look up words for the sake of finding them.

Explain to students that words are listed in alphabetical order in a dictionary, just as they arranged words in the readiness part of this objective. It would be a good idea to take a sample number of words and show students how to look them up in a dictionary.

Take, for example, the word "freshman". Ask them what letter they are going to look for first. They will know that they must look under "F", but the teacher may need to explain that so many words start with "F" that they may have to go by the second, third, fourth, or even fifth letter of a word.

Now is a good time to explain to students the purpose of guide words in a dictionary. Ask students to turn to any page in the dictionary and look at the top of that page. Ask them what they see. They will answer that they see two words, one at the top left, the other at the top right of the page. Ask if any student knows why these words are there. The teacher should explain that these two words indicate the first and last word on that page, and the purpose of their being there is to aid in the finding of a word. When you know how a word is spelled, all you have to do is to look at the top left and right guide words and you will know whether or not the word you are looking for falls between them; if it does, then your word is on that page.

The word "freshman" starts with "fr" so the students are asked to turn over the pages under "F" until they come to a guide word with "fr". Then they are to keep on turning until they come to a page with "fre" or "fr" and a letter before "e" at the top left, and "fr" with a letter after "e" on the top right. Somewhere between these two words, the word "freshman" has to be.

At this point of the lesson, the meaning or meanings of words may be omitted until students are proficient in finding words. The teacher should give as much practice in this skill as is necessary until all students have acquired this ability.

Meanings of words must be taken in context, and it would be a good idea for the teacher to refer students back

to the objective of using context to recognize the sound and meaning of words. This being done, a sentence with an obvious context clue may be placed on the chalkboard, for example:

"A gosling is a young goose."

The word "gosling" has so obvious a meaning in context that students should recognize its meaning immediately. Ask them to look it up in a dictionary to verify what they think it means.

Next take a sentence with a word that is not quite so obvious in context, for example:

"The decanter was filled with a fine, red wine."

In this case, the context is clear enough to know that a decanter is some kind of a container, but not explicit enough to tell what kind of one. This introduces another aspect of effectively using a dictionary--the word "decanter" has more than one meaning. The student is forced to make use of context to select among the number of meanings given. The American College Dictionary (1962) gives the following two meanings for decanter: 1. a bottle used for decanting. 2. a vessel, usually an ornamental bottle, from which wine, water, etc., are served at table. The teacher should ask students which of these two meanings fits the above sentence. There should be little doubt that the second meaning of the word "decanter" is the one needed for the sentence because of the way the word is used in context.

The above example should illustrate the direction this lesson is taking: that unknown words are first looked at in context and then looked up in a dictionary. The purpose of this pattern is to select the appropriate meaning of a word when more than one meaning is given.

The teacher should take more words of his own choosing and stay with this part of the exercise until he is satisfied that students have successfully combined their knowledge of "context clues" with "dictionary skills". Only then should he move on to the evaluation.

Evaluation

A sample number of sentences is given by which the students' mastery of this objective is determined. The teacher may add as many more sentences to them as he wishes.

1. Can you decipher this writing? I can't, the writing is so bad.
2. John came to our house frequently--at least three times a week.
3. In Venice we rode in a gondola, a long, narrow boat with a high peak at each end.
4. Her father was intoxicated so much he was stumbling all over the house.
5. The person was too young to be tried in court; he was a juvenile.
6. The people in the village were all killed, they had been massacred.
7. The wind was blowing about fifteen miles an hour; it was a moderate breeze.
8. You don't have to pay me back, you are under no obligation to me.

9. The population of the town was 15,000 people.
10. The Reverend Mr. Horn preached at our church last Sunday.

Follow-up

Ask students to make consistent use of a dictionary whenever they read or hear a word of which they don't know the meaning.

The teacher might print ten or more words on the chalkboard and ask students to look up the meaning of them, and then put them in context by using them in sentences.

Instruct students to do a similar exercise, except that students, instead of the teacher, offer the words to be placed on the board.

Perhaps most important, the teacher should try to make students aware of how much meaning is lost when they hear or read words that are unknown to them. Ask them to make using a dictionary a regular part of their daily study.

Reading Objective 12: To Use the SQ3R Method of Study

This section will teach students to use the SQ3R method of study, with an evaluation to determine their mastery of this objective.

Materials

SRA Lab IIa. Rate Builder, Orange 7.

SRA Lab IIa. Power Builder, Blue 7. "The Parachute That Did Not Open."

SRA Lab IIa. Rate Builder, Olive 8.

The New Open Highways. Level 6, Exploring Afar,
"The Story of Chocolate", pp. 52-55.

The New Open Highways. Level 6, Exploring Afar,
"Animals of Australia", pp. 175-180.

Readiness

Print the phrase "To Use the SQ3R Method of Study" in large letters on the chalkboard and ask students to find it on their duplicated sheet for reading. Ensure as much as possible that all students can read the phrase with understanding.

The teacher might ask, "How many of you know how to study?" Very likely all students will reply in the affirmative. "How many of you study?" This question is likely to be answered in a variety of ways. "How many of you would like to be able to study more effectively and remember more of what you have studied?" Most students are likely to reply in the affirmative to this one.

Ask students if they know what SQ3R means. The teacher may either explain this study technique to the students, or summarize what certain students may have said.

"S" stands for survey. It means that you take a brief look through whatever you are studying. Look at the title; look at any main headings; look at the first sentence of each paragraph; note any people, places, times, or events in the story.

This may be illustrated by using SRA Lab IIa, Rate Builder, Orange 7. A survey of this selection shows that

the word "monkey" is used often, so the main idea must be something about monkeys.

"Q" stands for question; and when this question is applied to the selection about monkeys it might be as follows: What does this selection say about monkeys?

The first "R" stands for read, and students are instructed to read for the purpose of finding the answer to the question posed in the previous part: What does the selection say about monkeys? The following answers are evident: Monkeys are funny; they may be found in zoos; they like to swing on ropes; they like to eat bananas; they learn many tricks and wear clothes in a circus.

The next "R" means to recite, and students are asked to try to remember as many of the points about monkeys as they can without looking at the original selection or any notes they have made about monkeys.

The last "R" means to review. In this case, students are to go back to the original selection and check their answers to the question or questions against what they could recall in the last part. Systematic review of past selections comes under this part as well.

The Lesson

The SQ3R method of study may now be applied to the selection, "The Parachute That Did Not Open."

Survey: Ask students to look at the title as well as the first sentence of every paragraph. The teacher might

help them to note the name "Captain George Day" and the words "airplane", "parachute", "down ... down" and "lucky tree". Ask students to look at the picture on the first page of the story which shows a person being thrown from a jet airplane which is on fire. This picture shows at least part of the story although it does not reveal the final outcome of it.

Question: The teacher should help students to formulate questions based on the points brought up in the survey part. What happened to Captain George Day? What happened to the airplane he was flying? What happened to his parachute? In what way is a tree important in the story?

Read: The next step is to read the story looking for the answers to questions formulated in the previous part. As Captain George Day was coming in for a landing, the engine of his plane caught fire. He bailed out but his parachute failed to open. He landed in a tree which broke his fall and saved his life.

Recite: Students must now test their memory by trying to recall the points in the previous part, without looking at the original selection or any notes they may have made on it.

Review: To ensure retention of the points learned, students need to constantly review, not only the selection being studied but past selections as well.

Evaluation

Ask students to form into their three broad academic groups of lower, middle, and higher achieving students. The selections respectively for this evaluation are SRA Lab IIa, Rate Builder, Olive 8 (insects); "The Story of Chocolate", and "Animals of Australia".

Students are instructed to follow the pattern as laid down in the lesson part in order to complete this evaluation.

The materials suggested are only a sample of what might be given; the teacher may need to select others, based on the particular needs of his students. He should continue with such exercises for as long as he considers necessary.

Follow-up

The teacher should ask students to use this method of study in whatever subjects they are working. However, he should closely monitor their books to ensure they are doing so. When any lessening of effort is seen, in this or any other subject, the teacher should take appropriate action to correct the situation.

A Review

Now that the reading objectives are finished, a complete review of all past objectives should be conducted. The teacher should ask students to take each duplicated objective sheet in turn, and go through them both for students'

ability to read the phrases and their retention of concepts involved in each case. If systematic review has been conducted at periodic intervals through the program, there should be no great amount of difficulty in an overall review.

Writing

Writing Objective 1: End of Sentence Marks--Periods, Question Marks and Exclamation Marks

This section will teach students to use the correct punctuation marks at the end of sentences with an evaluation to determine how well this objective has been achieved.

Materials

SRA Lab IIa, Rate Builders:

Lower reading group: Orange, as many as are needed;
Middle reading group: Red, as many as are needed;
Higher reading group: Silver, as many as are needed.

Readiness

Write the phrase "Punctuation: To Use End of Sentence Marks--Periods, Question Marks, and Exclamation Marks" in large letters on the chalkboard. Ask students to find it on their duplicated sheet for writing, and ensure as much as possible that all students can read the phrase with understanding.

Ask students why punctuation marks are needed. It would be a good idea to print three or four sentences on the board to illustrate punctuation marks, for example:

The man, woman and child walked down the street.

Why did you take my bike?

What a beautiful day it is today!

The man replied, "Yes, I would like to go to New York."

If any students do not know what punctuation marks are, the teacher might point them out in the above sentences. Now, it may be asked why punctuation marks are used and the teacher can summarize any answers given. If no students know why punctuation marks are used, they should be told that punctuation marks are the markings on a printed page which try to structure the semantic and syntactic emphasis as utilized in the spoken language. These are the marks that give some indication how the sentences may be read with expression. Without punctuation, much written work would not make sense.

The teacher should ask students whether or not they know when each of the three aforementioned marks may be used to end a sentence. The teacher might print three sentences on the chalkboard and ask which of the three marks should end each one.

Why did you take my book

What a beautiful day it is today

The girl was roller skating

The teacher will know where to start his lesson by how well students matched each of the three end punctuation marks with the correct sentence.

The Lesson

The teacher might use the same sentences that were used at the end of the previous part to illustrate the three basic types of sentences and the end punctuation mark which should be used with each.

A statement is a sentence that tells something, and it ends with a period, for example:

The girl was roller skating.

This sentence does not ask a question and it does not show emotional feeling; it simply tells us the fact that the girl was roller skating. It is a telling sentence and it ends with a period.

A question mark follows a question, for example:

Why did you take my book?

The question mark is perhaps the easiest of the three end punctuation marks to remember in that it indicates a question is being asked.

The exclamation mark is a somewhat harder concept to grasp. It shows what a person feels in his or her mind, for example:

What a beautiful day it is today!

This sentence shows that a person feels good about the day, but it may have nothing to do with the weather of that day. Someone else may feel that the same day is a horrible one depending on how he or she reacts to what is happening to them.

The teacher should continue to give examples such as those just given until all students know which of the three end punctuation marks to use with any given sentence.

Evaluation

To determine whether or not students have mastered this objective, the following sentences, with the concluding marks left off, may be given. Students are instructed to fill in the concluding punctuation marks.

1. Why do you drink so much water today
2. Our car is a red station wagon
3. Who said that the water in that pond is polluted
4. How fresh the woods smell today
5. Gee, I feel like a heel
6. That tall girl is the one who won the last race
7. How terrible I feel about what happened
8. Why do stars shine only at night
9. The fishing was good yesterday
10. I'm the luckiest person in the world

After giving the students ample time to fill in the concluding punctuation marks, discussion may take place as to why each particular mark was used.

Students should now be asked to form into their three broad academic groups of lower, middle, and higher achieving students. Each group will use a different color of SRA Lab IIa Rate Builders, starting with number one in each

case and working through that color as far as is necessary. The lower group will use Orange, the middle group will use Red, and the higher group will use Silver. The teacher will need to xerox or duplicate the cards so that the end of sentence punctuation marks are not shown. Typewriter correction fluid may be used for this purpose, although the "whiting out" should be done only on the copies, not on the original cards.

Students are asked to fill in the missing final punctuation marks. If any doubt exists in the teacher's mind as to the students' ability to perform this task, he should keep them working on this part of the exercise for as long as he deems it necessary.

Follow-up

Ask students to write ten sentences each, trying to make sure that all three types of sentences are represented and that the proper concluding punctuation marks are used.

Students should be asked to write another ten sentences, this time leaving out the final punctuation marks. They are to change their notebooks so that other students fill in the missing punctuation. The teacher should monitor this exercise closely, otherwise mistakes may go unnoticed.

The teacher should monitor closely all written work done by students to see that correct final punctuation marks are used. If any students appear to be forgetting how to use them, the teacher should take immediate corrective action.

Writing Objective 2: To Use Commas Correctly

This section will teach students to use commas correctly, with an evaluation to determine their mastery of this objective.

Materials

SRA Lab IIa. Rate Builders, Orange 1 and 11.

SRA Lab IIa. Rate Builders, Brown 11, Red 10 and 11.

SRA Lab IIa. Rate Builders, Aqua 7, Rose 10 and 11.

Readiness

Print the phrase "To Use Commas Correctly" in large letters on the chalkboard and ask students to write it at the top of the next unused page in their writing notebook. As much as possible, ensure that all students can read the phrase with understanding.

The teacher should ask students if they know why commas are used. Certainly, all of them have seen commas used, but they need to understand how and why they are used. If any students give examples of the usage of commas, the teacher should write them on the board, as well as other examples of his own. For example:

I like hockey, soccer, basketball and baseball.

Hello, Jerry, how are you?

Carl Brown, our pitcher, is also a good batter.

Yes, I will come with you.

I live in St. John's, Newfoundland, Canada.

After hunting, Dad came home tired.

Discussions should be held to determine whether or not students know why the commas were used in the previous sentences. Their responses will give the teacher an accurate starting point for the lesson involving commas. The lesson in this paper will be more general and will not attempt to deal with all aspects of comma usage.

The Lesson

One usage of commas is to separate people, things, or places in a series. For example:

John, Harry, Ted and Bill have gone fishing.

We visited New York City, Buffalo, Toronto and Hamilton.

The farmer was growing potatoes, carrots, turnips, beets and cabbage.

It is necessary to point out that, as a general rule, a comma is not used before the word "and".

Another reason for using commas is so that sentences make sense. For example:

After eating, mother and father went outdoors.

When fishing, Bob hurt his foot.

While she was driving, Mary saw a bad accident.

The part played by the commas in the previous sentences can be shown by writing the sentences without putting in the commas. The effect then would appear to be as follows:

After eating mother and father . . .

When fishing Bob . . .

While she was driving Mary . . .

Dates and addresses also take commas. For example:

I live in St. John's, Newfoundland, Canada.

John was born on May 19, 1956.

Commas are also used before and after phrases that describe a person, place or thing. For example:

Carl Brown, our pitcher, is also a good batter.

The C.N. Tower, the world's tallest freestanding structure, is in Toronto.

That accident, a very bad one, should never have happened.

Usually commas are placed after the words "yes" and "no".

Yes, I will come to your party.

No, I didn't see what happened.

Commas are also used after a person is directly spoken to. For example:

Mother, I didn't break the mirror.

Oh, Bob, where did you come from?

These are only some of the uses of commas, but they will serve as a starting point for recognizing other uses of them as students progress academically up through the skills that mark each grade level.

The following exercise might be given so that students are asked to fill in the commas illustrating the different uses shown in this lesson. Spaces will not be left where commas should be placed, as this would obviously destroy the very purpose of this exercise.

1. John Harry Bill and Ted have gone swimming.
2. She was born on August 16 1947.
3. We saw bears moose caribou beavers and foxes.
4. No I don't like to hear things like that.
5. Jim our class president is sick today.
6. Please Jill don't frighten me like that.
7. After shooting father gave the gun to me.
8. Jack was born in Montreal Quebec Canada.
9. Peter I don't know what you mean.
10. October 1 is my brother's birthday.

After students have done the foregoing exercise, the teacher will know whether or not they need more practice in using commas.

Evaluation

The materials listed at the beginning of this objective need to be retyped with the commas left out. The students are asked to form into their groups of lower, middle and higher achieving students. The materials respectively are SRA Lab IIa, Rate Builders, Orange 1 and 11; Brown 11, Red 10 and 11; Aqua 7, Rose 10 and 11.

Students are asked to fill in the commas where they think such marks are needed.

After giving students ample time to complete this assignment, correcting may be done by consulting the original SRA card. If the teacher is not satisfied with students' performance, more cards may be used until he is certain that

students know how to utilize commas in various sentence situations.

Follow-up

Ask students to write at least ten sentences using commas in the various ways shown in the lesson.

Ask them to write ten more sentences in which commas should be used, but the commas are to be left out. Students are then instructed to change books so that other students fill in the commas.

Ask students to write a paragraph about a subject of their own choosing, making sure that all commas are placed where they should be. Remind them to be aware of commas in whatever writing they do.

Writing Objective 3: To Use Possessives Correctly

This section will teach students to use possessives correctly, with an evaluation to determine their mastery of this objective.

Materials

Only what is given in this paper.

Readiness

Print the phrase "To Use Possessives Correctly" in large letters on the chalkboard and ask students to write it at the top of the next unused page in their writing notebook. Ensure as much as possible that all students can read the phrase with understanding.

The teacher might ask students what the word "possession" means. Some of them may know that "to possess something" means "to own it". If this doesn't come from the students, then the teacher may help them develop a working definition of the term.

The term "possessive" as it applies to English grammar denotes that something belongs to somebody, and it is written in a particular way to express ownership. For example, the term "the coat of John" may be expressed alternatively as "John's coat", or "the car of Pam" may be written simply as "Pam's car".

Before going into more detail about "possessives", it would be a good idea to look at the concepts of "singular and plural" since possessive forms are expressed in both ways.

The teacher might put two columns on the chalkboard as follows:

Singular (one)	Plural (more than one)
boy	boys
girl	girls
door	doors
box	boxes
fox	foxes
man	men
mouse	mice
window	
tree	
goose	

Singular (one)	Plural (more than one)
kettle	
.....	animals
.....	books
.....	toys
.....	houses

When students have grasped the basic idea of "singular and plural" they should have little trouble in filling in the missing words. The teacher should make sure that students understand these terms before proceeding with the concept "possessives".

The Lesson

The teacher should return to the concept "possessive", reviewing the fact that the term denotes ownership. For example, John's coat, Mary's house, the car's roof, are all examples of the term "possessive".

Some practical work may be given to further illustrate the concept. The teacher may write the following phrases on the chalkboard and ask students to shorten them, showing the possessive form. As examples, he might write:

The car of father father's car.

The skates of Bill Bill's skates.

The book of the teacher

A box belonging to Tom

The boat of my brother

A coat owned by Mary

After students have done the previous exercise, they should be asked what they notice about the way "possession" or "ownership" is shown. If students do not respond in a correct manner, the teacher should point out that the apostrophe (') before the final "s" is what denotes the ownership.

The teacher should ask if students know of any other ways to show ownership except placing an apostrophe before the final "s". There are two other ways, in certain plural forms of words and when using pronouns, although the term "pronoun" need not be used.

Before doing plural possessives, the teacher should review "singular" and "plural" forms of words as this knowledge is needed on which to build the concept of "plural possessives".

The teacher should write a number of examples on the board. For example:

singular	singular possessive	plural	plural possessive
boy	boy's	boys	boys'
student	student's	students ..	students'
door	door's	doors	doors'
man	man's	men	men's
goose	goose's	geese	geese's
mouse	mouse's	mice	mice's

Students should be asked to write the above information

in their notebook for writing, and look closely at how the words are written to see if they can note any pattern as to how the possessives, singular and plural, are formed in relation to the singular and plural forms of the words. Ample time should be given for this observation. If no students can see the pattern, the teacher might point out the fact that all singular possessives are denoted by the apostrophe before the final "s"; that plural possessives have two forms: if the plural of the word simply adds "s" to the singular, the plural possessive has an apostrophe after the final "s"; if the plural word changes from the singular without adding "s" (i.e., mouse, mice; goose, geese), then the apostrophe is again placed before the final "s".

Pronouns also express possession, although the teacher need not use the word "pronoun" unless it is to his advantage in some other area. It may simply be pointed out to students that other forms of showing possession are as follows:

<u>his</u> coat	<u>your</u> book
<u>her</u> car	<u>their</u> house
<u>my</u> hat	<u>its</u> foot

The teacher should ask if students can see any pattern to the way possessives are used in this case. It may be drawn from the students or pointed out, that in such cases as these above, no apostrophes are used at all.

The teacher may use as many examples as he wishes in order to reinforce a working knowledge of possessives.

Evaluation

Ask students to underline the words that show possession in the following sentences.

1. Mary's coat is on her desk.
2. The boy's book is torn.
3. John said that his father was sick.
4. Their car had been in an accident.
5. The men's boat had been stolen.
6. The geese's yard was covered with sawdust.
7. My writing is not as good as her writing.

Instruct students to change the following longer forms of possession into shorter ones.

1. The hat of the man ...
2. The collar of the dog ...
3. The collars of the dogs ...
4. The car of my brother ...
5. The nests of mice ...

Instruct students to name the singular, singular possessive, plural and plural possessive of the following words and then write a meaningful sentence for each of the forms of the words.

boy	mouse
girl	house
man	goose

woman uncle

fox pan

This exercise will require forty sentences, and may be done over two or more periods. The teacher should stay with exercises such as those given above until he is satisfied with the performance of all students in this objective.

Follow-up

Ask students to look through a story or selection they may currently be doing and copy in their writing notebook all the "possessives" they can identify.

The teacher might give a homework assignment in which students are to use as many "possessives" as they can. They are asked to underline the "possessives".

Writing Objective 4: To Use Quotation Marks Correctly

This objective will teach students to use quotation marks correctly, with an evaluation to determine their mastery of this objective.

Materials

SRA Lab IIa. Rate Builders: Orange 12, Blue 5, Red 9. (Some re-typing and duplicating of these materials are necessary.)

Readiness

Write the phrase "To Use Quotation Marks Correctly" on the chalkboard and ask students to find it on their duplicated sheet for writing. Ask them to write it at the

top of the next unused page in their writing notebooks and ensure as much as possible that all students can read the phrase with understanding.

The teacher might write on the chalkboard a sentence using quotation marks (e.g., John said, "I have a new puppy."). Ask students if they know why the marks ("...") were used before and after the sentence "I have a new puppy." Even if some students can answer this question, the teacher should still do a detailed lesson illustrating the use of quotation marks as they apply to conversation.

The Lesson

The teacher should tell students that these marks ("....") are called quotation marks and their main usage is to contain words said by a person, as in the sentence above: John said, "I have a new puppy." He might tell them that quotation marks have other functions, but for our purpose they will be used only as conversation markers.

Students might be asked how they know the words that are spoken by characters in comic strips or comic books. Most, if not all, students will know that conversation in comic strips or books, is enclosed within bubbles above each speaker's head. The teacher should illustrate the fact that in writing, conversations of people are enclosed, not by bubbles, but by quotation marks. Some examples are as follows:

Mary said, "It is cold out today."

Harry screamed, "Look out! The ice is breaking!"

Mother asked, "Do you have any homework tonight?"

Jack called, "See you tomorrow."

The teacher should ask students what common points they notice about the above sentences. He may have to help them see the following points:

Conversation is enclosed by quotation marks;

Each conversation starts with a capital letter;

A comma follows the word before each conversation.

To reinforce the above points relating to conversation, students should be asked to write five sentences in which spoken words are used. Judging by their sentences, the teacher will know whether or not more work is necessary in order that all students know how to use quotation marks properly in conversation. If more work is indicated, the teacher should choose more examples of his own, and stay at them until all students are proficient in this area.

Evaluation

Ask students to form into their three broad academic groups of lower, middle and higher achieving students. The three selections respectively are Orange 12, Blue 5 and Red 9. The teacher will need to retype these stories on master sheets, leaving out the three points about direct quotations which are: the quotation marks; the comma before each quotation; the capital letter at the start of each quotation. Students are instructed to fill in the missing points.

After giving students ample time to complete this

exercise, the teacher should correct each individual assignment. If any students are still not proficient in the proper means of expressing conversation, the teacher should give more examples and exercises until he is satisfied with the performance of all students in this area.

Follow-up

Ask students to stay in their three academic groups and each student is instructed to write ten sentences in which spoken words are used. All points about expressing conversation in writing are to be filled in correctly.

Instruct students to rewrite the same ten sentences, this time leaving out the three points involved in expressing written conversation. They are then asked to change books so that other students must fill in the missing points.

Remind students to be aware of quotation marks from this time onward; this is another step upward on their road to more effective reading.

Writing Objective 5: To Use Capital Letters Correctly

This section will teach students to use capital letters correctly, with an evaluation to determine their mastery of this objective.

Materials

SRA Lab IIa. Rate Builder, Blue 12.

The New Open Highways. Level 4, Seeking Adventure,

p. 70.

The New Open Highways. Level 5, Discovering Treasure, pp. 221-223.

Readiness

Write the phrase "To Use Capital Letters Correctly" in large letters on the chalkboard and ask students to find it on their duplicated sheet for writing. Ask them to write it at the top of the next unused page in their writing notebook and ensure as much as possible that all students can read the phrase with understanding.

Ask students if they know what capital letters are. Some students may know what capital letters are and perhaps some of their uses; the teacher, however, should demonstrate them by using sentences such as those following:

The man was walking down the road.

John and Bob were swimming yesterday at Rocky Pond.

My sister, Mary, is working in Toronto.

The man said, "Here is your money."

The time now is 3 P.M.

The students might be asked to tell which letters are capital letters. Perhaps a student who is familiar with them may be asked to do the first two sentences. When students begin to see that capital letters are written a little bigger and often a little different than "small" or "lower case" letters, the others should be able to point out the capital letters in the last three sentences. It may also be added

that capital letters are also called "upper case" letters.

The teacher might put sentences such as those following on the chalkboard and ask students to write them in their notebook, circling the "capital" or "upper case" letters.

The girl's name is Carla Thompson.

John came here from New York City, New York.

Mother said, "Don't forget your warm mittens."

P.E.I. are letters which stand for Prince Edward Island.

My friend, Jimmy, lives in a fishing village near St. Anthony.

When the teacher can see that students can recognize capital letters, he should move on to their usage, which forms the basis for the lesson on this objective.

The Lesson

The teacher might explain to the students that, since they can recognize "capital" or "upper case" letters, the next part is to learn when to use them.

1. The first word of a sentence always takes a capital letter, as do the first word of a line of poetry and the first word of a quotation, for example,
 - a. The girl wore warm clothing.
 - b. Twinkle, twinkle, little star,
How I wonder what you are!
 - c. John said, "Here is your book."
2. Names of people and places take capital letters, for example,

- a. John Brown; Mary Power.
- b. St. John's, Newfoundland, Canada.
- c. Barrington Street in Halifax, Nova Scotia.

However, the words "boy", "girl", "street", "city", when used alone do not take capital letters, for example,

- a. He lives on a street in a large city.
3. Names of months of the year, days of the week and special holidays take capital letters, for example,
- a. January, March, Sunday, Thursday, Christmas, Easter.
4. The letter "I" when used alone is always a capital, for example,
- a. Harry and I went fishing.
5. Titles of people when used with their names always take capital letters, for example,
- a. Prime Minister Trudeau; President Ronald Reagan.
- However, the words "prime minister" and "president" would not take capital letters if no proper name were used with them and they did not start sentences.
6. Names of boats, railroads, highways, organizations take capital letters, for example,
- a. We sailed on the Queen Elizabeth II.
 - b. The Canadian Pacific Railroad does not cross Newfoundland.
 - c. We were driving on the Trans Canada Highway.
 - d. We are members of the Junior Red Cross.

There are many other cases where capital letters are to be used, but it is not the intention of this paper to cover them all. If students can name more uses for them

then these should be included as it makes for good student morale.

The teacher should recapitulate all the previous uses for capital letters, trying to ensure that all the given uses are known. When he feels reasonably certain about this, he should move on to the evaluation.

Evaluation

Some writing on the chalkboard or/and typing and duplicating will be necessary for this evaluation.

1. Students are to circle the capital letters in the following sentences.
 - a. Here is a picture of John Harris.
 - b. She and I are good friends.
 - c. Last Sunday, John, Reg and Bob went swimming.
 - d. This is Mary Jones. She is president of our branch of the Junior Red Cross.
 - e. The Trans Canada Highway stretches from Newfoundland to British Columbia.

The teacher may give more exercises at his own discretion.

2. Students are to capitalize the following sentences.
 - a. mary and i saw susan in a television news report.
 - b. last monday was the day jerry came here.
 - c. january and february are cold winter months in northern climates.
 - d. i would like to visit miami beach in florida.
 - e. what did you get for christmas, john?

More sentences of a similar nature may be given if the teacher deems it to be necessary.

3. The three materials listed at the beginning of this section should be retyped on master copies with the capital letters left out. They are meant to be given to the lower, middle and higher achieving students in the order in which they are listed. Students are instructed to fill in the missing capital letters.

From student responses, the teacher will know whether or not more work is necessary on this objective. If more work is indicated, he should give more examples and exercises of his own choosing, until he feels certain that all students can meet the requirements of this objective.

Follow-up

Ask students to write ten sentences of their own, making sure that all capital letters are placed correctly.

Ask students to write the same ten sentences again, this time leaving out all capital letters. Other students are asked to fill in the missing capital letters.

Remind students to be aware of capital letters and their correct usage in all written work from this time forth.

Writing Objective 6: To Use Describing Words Effectively

This section will teach students to use describing words effectively with an evaluation to determine their

mastery of this objective.

Materials

Only what is given in this section.

Readiness

Write the phrase "To Use Describing Words Effectively" in large letters on the chalkboard and ask students to find it on their duplicated sheet for writing. Ask them to write it at the top of the next unused page in their writing notebook and ensure as much as possible that all students can read the phrase with understanding.

Ask students if they know what the term "describing words" means. It may be necessary for the teacher to help them develop a working definition of it. The teacher might say, "A describing word is a word that tells more about another word. For example, the word "cat" may be described in many ways, such as fat cat, old cat, dead cat, wild cat, alley cat, Persian cat. Can you think of any other words to describe the word "cat"?" The students may be able to volunteer more words to describe "cat". The teacher should tell students that all the words that told more about "cat" were "describing words". It would be a good idea to ask students how many "describing words" they can get to describe "house" and "road".

The teacher might tell students of another form of describing words. These are the ones that describe action,

for example, "The boy walked" doesn't tell very much, but "The boy walked slowly", or "The boy walked briskly", tells more about the action of the boy walking. Ask students to come up with as many variations as possible for the sentence, "The girl worked _____." The teacher should remind students that both the foregoing examples were of "describing words".

The Lesson

Basically, this lesson will take the form of giving students practice in using different describing words to create different impressions, as "dead cat" and "playful young cat" describe two very different states of the same object word "cat".

Ask students to try to get at least ten words to describe each word in the following list:

man	house	harbour
girl	road	boat
animal	dance	pond
bridge	ride	mountain

After students have finished this exercise, the teacher will know if they have grasped the idea of not having to stay with the same describing word all the time.

Taking the adverb form of "describing word", the teacher might say, "Let us see now how many different ways you can come up with that change the following situations." The teacher may write a number of sample sentences on the

board, such as:

The girl walked slowly.

The man worked fast.

The team played brilliantly.

Students are asked to get as many alternative words for each underlined word as they can.

Now that students have done both the adjective and adverb form of describing words, both may be combined in one exercise. A number of sentences might be written on the chalkboard for students to try to get alternative words for each underlined word.

The old man walked slowly down the street.

The frisky dog ran noisily after the car.

The little girl sat quietly for a long time.

The winding road was a terrible experience for me.

Students are asked to get as many alternatives as they can for the underlined words.

Describing words also create moods in writing. The same basic sentence can be made to show different emotional states by changing the describing words, as in the following examples,

The lonely old man walked slowly down the street.

The friendly old man walked briskly down the street.

The dirty old man walked tiredly down the street.

The little old man walked quickly down the street.

The teacher might ask students if they can come up with any other descriptive words that would fit the above sentence, changing the emotional tone or mood of the basic sentence.

The teacher might put the words "woman" and "talked" on the board and ask students to combine them with describing words so that one sentence is happy, another is sad, another is angry and another is curious. They may continue to get more moods for the same basic sentence if they can.

Evaluation

Ask students to write a short paragraph about something that happened to each one. At first they are to use the first describing words that come to mind. When they have finished they are asked to go back over what they have done for three reasons:

1. to see if more describing words may be used;
2. to see if some describing words already used may be changed to express more clearly what they meant to say;
3. to see if the mood created by the describing words is the mood they wanted to convey.

The students are instructed to make any changes thought to be necessary to satisfy the foregoing three points. When all changes have been made, the paragraphs are to be read aloud to see how other students receive them, using the same three points as criterion.

Ask students to write another paragraph, this time

deliberately leaving out any describing words. They are instructed to change books so that other students may fill in the missing words. When this is done, each original writer should read the paragraph he or she wrote, to see how the intent of the paragraph has been changed by the addition of someone else's describing words.

The teacher should continue with similar exercises until all students can effectively use describing words to better express what they want to say, in writing as well as in speaking.

Follow-up

The effective usage of describing words is an ongoing process, consequently, creative writing should be a part of the work of every school day.

Students may be asked to write stories, descriptions, poems, plays, newspaper articles, television commercials, etc. There is no limit to the forms creative writing may take. The process of using effective describing words is an important part of expressive language arts, and as such should be given the ongoing attention it deserves.

Writing Objective 7: To Write Personal and Business Letters Correctly

This section will teach students to write personal and business letters, with an evaluation to determine their mastery of this objective.

Materials

Only what is given in this section.

Readiness

Print the phrase "To Write Personal and Business Letters" in large letters on the chalkboard and ask students to find it on their duplicated sheet for writing. Ask them to write it at the top of the next unused page in their writing notebook and ensure as much as possible that all students can read the phrase with understanding.

Ask students why it is important to be able to correspond with other people by letter. The teacher may need to help students see various reasons:

1. To correspond with friends who live in other places.
2. If someone else has to write letters for you, your right to privacy is violated.
3. You might need to order goods from a catalogue.
4. You may need to apply in writing for a job.
5. You may need to complain to a store or some government agency.

Perhaps students can supply other reasons why the ability to correspond by mail is important.

Ask students how many of them have written personal letters to friends or more formal letters of a business nature. The teacher might ask whether or not students know the difference in style between a business and a personal letter. It may be explained that a personal letter is one you write to a good friend and the letter is somewhat like

a chat you would have with that person. A business letter is very formal with no unnecessary words whatever and it has a format that is different than the friendly letter. This will be seen as each type of letter is demonstrated.

1st Lesson (Personal Letters)

The teacher should first demonstrate the form that a personal letter takes.

106 Bennings Drive
Gander, Newfoundland
October 1, 19__

Dear Helen,

I received your note last Monday and I am sorry to have taken so long to reply. How are you now? I heard you had a bad flu a little while ago. I hope you are better now.

Are you coming to visit us at Christmas? I look forward to your being with us for a few days. We had so much fun last year. Do you remember the trick we played on my brother, Don? He hasn't forgiven me yet, but he likes you so it really doesn't matter. How are your parents? Was your dad out of work because of the strike? Write as soon as you can. I look forward to seeing you again at Christmas.

Your friend,

Jenny

The teacher should point out the different parts of the letter: the inside address and date, the salutation, the body of the letter, the complimentary closing and signature. The teacher might point out that the format for

addressing an envelope which encloses a personal letter also follows the same pattern as does the letter itself. A sample of an addressed envelope is below.

Miss Jenny Francis
106 Bennings Drive
Gander, Newfoundland
A0A 1J3

Miss Helen Ryan
67 Southey Drive
Grand Falls, Newfoundland
A1A 6B5

The teacher should point out why it is necessary to include a return address.

Evaluation

Ask students to write personal letters to friends of theirs who live in other towns. The teacher might be able to get enough real envelopes for all students, as the letters are meant to be actually mailed. Students may need help in case of technical errors, but the content material should be each student's own. The teacher should stay with similar exercises until all students can adequately write personal

letters.

2nd Lesson (Business Letters)

The teacher should now demonstrate the form of a business or formal letter. The letter comes directly to the point of its being written, and no words are wasted whatever. The format of the letter is often straight up and down. It contains an inside address of the receiver, which the personal letter does not.

It should be noted that it is not the intention of this paper to present many forms of business letters. One example only will be given to demonstrate the format rather than the content. Different types of business letters will be dealt with in the follow-up to these two lessons.

An example of a business letter is shown on the following page.

106 Bennings Drive
Gander, Newfoundland
AOA 1J3
October 10, 19__

Mr. Thomas Reid
President, Reid Industries
96 Ascot Street
St. John's, Newfoundland
A1G 519

Dear Sir:

In the latest Weekend Edition of the Evening Telegram you advertised for a secretary with experience in typing and filing. I have two years experience in this kind of work with the J. C. McMara Company, on Julian Drive, here in Gander. They have consented to supply a reference if necessary. I am twenty years of age; I have a grade eleven education plus a certificate in secretarial work from the Gander Vocational School. They, too, will supply references. I should like to be considered for this position with your company. I look forward to hearing from you in this regard.

Yours truly,

Jenny Larkin

The envelope to enclose a business letter will also take the same format as did the letter.

Miss Jennifer Larkin
106 Bennings Drive
Gander, Newfoundland
A0A 1J3

Mr. Thomas Reid
President, Reid Industries
96 Ascot Street
St. John's, Newfoundland
A1G 5I9

Using the foregoing illustrations of personal and business letters, the teacher might more easily point out the differences between the two.

Evaluation

Ask students to write business letters to a local firm, applying for a job that has been advertised. They may need a few trial runs to reinforce their knowledge of writing business letters, before doing one that could actually be sent if necessary. They should be supplied with enough envelopes to practice this part of the business letter as well.

Follow-up

Now that students know the basic forms of personal

and business letters, they should be asked to write many forms of each.

Personal letters: Students might be asked to write thank you notes, sympathy notes, letters of appreciation, congratulatory letters, etc. The same basic pattern will be used as before, although the teacher will need to help them with the general type of content of each letter.

Business letters: Students may be asked to write letters applying for jobs, requesting information, ordering goods, criticizing some government action or law, etc. The teacher will need to help with the general content of each type of business letter, although students should be able to use the right format by this time.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

This chapter summarizes the study, states implications related to the handbook and makes recommendations concerning areas for further study.

Summary

The purpose of this study was to develop a handbook of language arts for educable mentally retarded students at the junior high school level. The term "junior high school level" is a misnomer in this study in that although the ages of these students correspond to the normal junior high school age, the grade equivalent does not. In fact, the grade equivalent may range all the way from grade one or lower, up to a maximum of grade five. This meant that the objectives normally intended for lower grades and ages had to be adapted to fit ages up to the early to middle teen-age years. The strategies and techniques by which these objectives may be accomplished also had to be adapted to bridge this age grade disparity. Educable mentally retarded students will not tolerate condescension, whereas they will accept sincere attempts by the teacher to help them learn concepts they have missed during the lower grades. No matter how excellent the content material may be, it will be of no value unless the teacher has a favourable attitude towards these students.

They need to be respected as human beings with limitations to be overcome, and not as the misfits of a school system who deserve to be set apart from the rest of the student body and provided with day care services only.

This handbook was also intended to help teachers not well versed in the art of teaching educable mentally retarded children. There is no doubt that teachers trained in this area of exceptionality would be able to utilize this program to greater effect, but since ideal situations do not always exist, some provision must be made for less than ideal teaching situations. It is hoped that by using this handbook, a novice teacher may be able to do a reasonably good job of teaching language arts to educable mentally retarded students. If careful records are kept as to how far each student or group of students have progressed along the skills continuum in this program, there is good reason to believe that students should experience a degree of success sufficient to make staying in school a viable alternative to dropping out. If this handbook of language arts has the effect of giving educable mentally retarded students a reasonable chance of academic success, then the main aim of this program will have been achieved.

General Conclusions and Implications

Kennedy (1975), comments on the importance of language:

The adult who does not understand language or is unable to use it in pursuit of his basic

human needs remains unfulfilled. He cannot communicate with his fellow man, either to satisfy his needs or to understand theirs (p. 3).

The importance of language in life is reflected by the importance given to language arts in school. Rawlyk (1977) states that:

All the language arts - listening, speaking, reading and writing are essential for communication and for acquiring and integrating knowledge. The development of these skills cannot be left to incidental learning but must be developed through a carefully planned instructional program (p. 224).

The language arts are central to a child's learning in school. They are the keys by which much learning takes place. A child's mastery, or lack of mastery of the language arts largely determines his success, or lack of success, in academic matters. For many children, language arts do not present a problem, and when they first come to school they are relatively proficient in listening and speaking and are ready to progress to reading and writing. All children, however, are not so fortunate. Robbins (1975) states that:

...it is widely recognized that a small number of children are so different from the average in one or more dimensions that it is unrealistic to expect regular education alone to serve them adequately (p. 2).

It is for these children, educable mentally retarded among them, that changes need to be made in the regular curriculum. Canada, The United States and Great Britain have made, or are making, provision for maximum education of the handicapped.

Downey (n.d.) states:

We accept the philosophy that all children are entitled to an education according to the level of their capacity. To achieve this, the curriculum must be diversified so that it develops these capabilities to their full potential. It is inherent that a diversified curriculum must provide a variety of programs (p. 1).

It is hoped that the language arts program in this study provides a diversification of curriculum that will enable educable mentally retarded students to experience more success in school than was previously the case. If this objective can be achieved so that these students decide to stay in school longer, thereby coming closer to their academic potential, then the aim of this study will have been achieved.

Recommendations

The following are recommendations which may give direction for further studies or use of the handbook.

1. Use of the handbook as a guide for language arts skill development--these skills would range all the way from pre-reading to the upper limits of students' potentiality.
2. Use of the handbook as an in-service/pre-service instructional guide--this would apply especially to teachers not well versed in the area of educable mental retardation. It would also be valuable to regular language arts teachers,

because of students transferring from special education to regular education. It would let them know exactly what skills a student has mastered, thus providing a smoother transition for students into regular grade education.

3. A fully developed curriculum covering all aspects of special education needs to be drawn up--included would be such subjects as language arts, mathematics, social studies, science, etc. The program, however, would have to be flexible enough so that students may make the transition from special to regular education as occasions demand.

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APPENDIX

APPENDIX A

Director of Curriculum Development,
Department of Education,
Province (State) of _____

Dear Sir/Madam:

I am beginning work on a master's thesis, tentatively entitled,

A Program of Language Arts for Educable
Mentally Retarded Students at the Junior
High Level.

The intelligence quotients of these children fall within the range of 50 to 80, and the age range is on par with grades seven, eight and nine, that is, from thirteen to fifteen.

If you have any materials (handbooks, curriculum guidelines, statements of aims and objectives, etc.), I would greatly appreciate receiving them.

I thank you for your co-operation in this important area.

Yours truly,

Adolph Crant

